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UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO
FACULTY OF FOOD SCIENCES
157 BLOOR ST. W.
TORONTO 5, ONT. CAN.


WOMEN AT WORK IN CANADA



1964

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR - CANADA

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WOMEN AT WORK IN CANADA

a fact book on the female labour force

1964

Department of Labour of Canada

HON. ALAN MACEACHEN
Minister

GEORGE V. HAYTHORNE
Deputy Minister

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FOREWORD

A little over a decade ago the Women's Bureau was established as an administrative unit within the Federal Department of Labour to serve as a focus for departmental activities and policies relating to women in the labour force. One of the chief functions of the Bureau, working in co-operation with other branches of the Department, in particular the Economics and Research Branch, is to disseminate information regarding the trends in women's employment. This fact book, the third such publication produced within the Department since that time, takes advantage of recent more extensive data that are available, particularly through the Census of 1961.

Mr. Alan Portigal of the Economics and Research Branch was responsible for the research and for the presentation of the labour force data. His work and the advice and assistance of the Legislation and International Labour Affairs branches are acknowledged with appreciation.

It is hoped that the publication may provide a useful and ready source of reference for women workers themselves and for all who are interested in women's role within the Canadian economy.

J. P. FRANCIS,
DIRECTOR,
ECONOMICS AND
RESEARCH BRANCH

MARION V. ROYCE,
DIRECTOR,
WOMEN'S BUREAU

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I

Seventy Years Later

The first statistics on the number of women workers in Canada became available with the publication of the results of the Census of 1891. At that time one out of every eight paid workers was a woman, and the ten leading feminine occupations (all closely associated with traditional household tasks) were: servant, dress-maker, teacher, farmer, seamstress, tailoress, saleswoman, housekeeper, laundress, and milliner.

Writing in 1892¹, Mrs. Jean Thomson Scott viewed these developments as the inevitable outcome of advancing civilization. Mrs. Scott wrote:

“... In some cases the establishment of new industries, especially within the last fifteen years, has led to their (women's) further employment. In others they have entered fields hitherto, for the most part, occupied by men. New employments are continually opening up with advancing civilization, which require but slight experience and seem adapted for women.

There are various reasons why women are ready for the numerous occupations which are continually offering themselves. In a large number of instances, circumstances make it a matter of necessity for them to earn their living. Often a desire to live up to a certain standard of comfort will lead girls, for a short time at least, to go into employment in which, while living at home, they can partially support themselves, or at least supply themselves with pin-money. Again, the social conditions of life in Canada are such that women find it necessary to prepare themselves for emergencies: they often begin to learn some occupation so as to be prepared for future risks, and then their circumstances change and the occupation becomes a permanent one.”

In those days the work week was long — 60 hours in factories and 54 in stores — and this justified Mrs. Scott's fear that women entering new fields of work, some strenuous, some hazardous, often with sub-standard working conditions, might do so at considerable risk of their health.

¹ Jean Thomson Scott B.A.: *The Conditions of Female Labour in Ontario*, Toronto University Studies in Political Science, 1892.

“ . . . Isolated cases of women having shown themselves able to stand a severe physical strain cannot refute the fact that a vast majority of women are of weaker mould than men, and that over-work has in many cases been the cause of a life of semi-invalidism. It is nothing short of criminal to permit, let alone to exact, an undue exertion of physical strength from women; and it is the duty of the Government to prevent it. That women are willing, nay, even anxious sometimes, to attempt hard physical labour, is no reason for their being permitted to do so.”

By 1892 Canadian women had also begun their entry into the professions. Already they were taking over the field of elementary school teaching; as Mrs. Scott pointed out, large increases in the number of women teachers at low salaries had begun to drive men out of the profession. The University of Toronto had opened its doors to women in 1886 (Mrs. Scott must have been one of the first “lady graduates”), and professional schools had begun to lower their barriers. Dr. Emily Howard Stowe, Canada’s first “lady” physician, had begun to practise medicine in Toronto in the 1860’s. A number of other women had followed in her steps, although for some time it remained necessary for them to obtain their medical education outside of Canada.

Until World War II it was uncommon in Canada for married women (living with their husbands) to work outside their homes. Mrs. Scott wrote of the situation in her day:

“The employment of married women in factories and stores in Ontario is not general. In a large number of factories and stores there are no married women at all; at most only one or two widows. Married women in Canada do not seem to go out to work as long as their husbands are at all able to support them. In canning factories during the summer months, numbers of married women may be found; many work in laundries; and in a mill stock factory (preparing rags for shoddy mills) visited by the writer, most of the women were married. Market gardening is a means of subsistence to some. Women whose husbands are dead or are not able to support them, will not go out as long as they have children at home to care for, but prefer, if they can, to engage in some work which will keep them at home. Women in poor circumstances go out washing and ironing to private houses or else take it home to do. In many cases, they take in sewing or dressmaking, and do tailoring for the wholesale trade at their homes.”

It is, of course, nothing new for women to be at work in paid employment. What is rather new, with profound implications for family and society, is the employment nowadays of large numbers of married women. To understand how this change has come about, it is necessary to know something about the changes that have taken place in Canada over the last seventy years and, in particular, over the last twenty years since the end of World War II.

The first relevant change has been the transformation of Canada from a rural agrarian to an urban industrialized society. Agriculture is still important in Canada, but the main cash crops are now produced by highly mechanized means. The size of agricultural holdings has increased, and there has been a steady decline over the last thirty years in the size of the agricultural labour force. Women on farms have always had a full-time job on their hands, particularly before the spread of urban amenities to the countryside. In the city, by contrast, gainful employment is carried on outside the household, and household work therefore becomes divorced from work, proper. In addition, cities have always provided women with more employment opportunities outside the home than have rural areas. It is also in the city that traditional values lose their hold and are modified.

The family circumstances and environments of married women have also changed very greatly. At the turn of the century large families were the rule. Then, starting about 1925, the birth rate began to fall until, at the height of the Great Depression of the Thirties demographers began to speak of "incipient population decline". Birth rates rose during World War II and after, and the average size of the Canadian family began to move upwards. At the time of the 1961 Census the average for Canada was just under four persons.

Since World War II there has been an increase in the proportion of urban people living in self-contained housing. The houses have been, as a rule, smaller than those of middle-class people prior to the war. There has also been a movement, in larger urban centres, out of city wards towards the suburbs. This would have created difficulties for the employment of women were it not for the fact that many businesses have also relocated in urban fringe areas.

World War II destroyed many myths concerning which occupations were and which were not suitable for women. New war industries and shortages of male workers placed women in every conceivable kind of male occupational stronghold. On the whole they appear to have performed extremely well. In the immediate postwar period many women withdrew from the labour force, and men reclaimed production jobs in heavy industry.

The end of World War II was not attended by the economic collapse that had come to be regarded as the normal aftermath of wars. On the contrary, a number of circumstances — unsatisfied wartime demands, the reconstruction of Europe, the Korean war, the uranium boom, and the Suez crisis — combined to produce a period of rapid and sustained

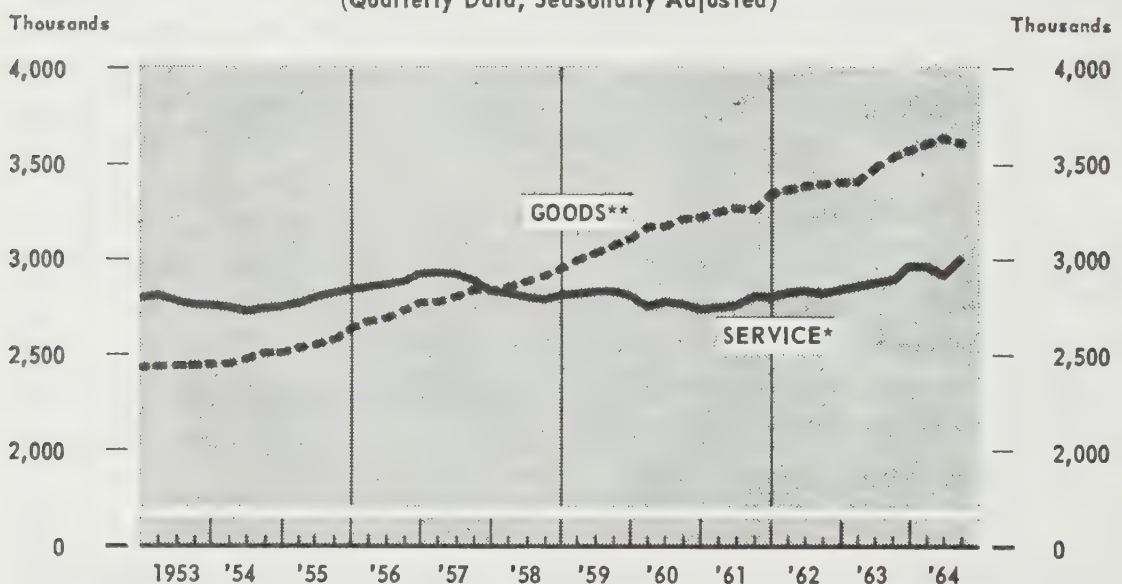
growth in the Canadian economy that lasted until 1958. Over the 1951-1961 decade, the Canadian population grew from 14 million to 18¼ million, an annual growth rate of over 2½ per cent. But over the same time span gross national expenditure in constant (1957) dollars grew from \$24½ billion to \$34½ billion, a growth rate of 3½ per cent. A good deal of light industry grew up, and many business concerns became very large. The need for record-keeping grew, bringing with it strong growth in the demand for clerical workers.

In recent years there has also been a shift in employment out of the goods-producing industries and into service-producing industries, the latter employing a much higher proportion of women than the former.

Chart 1

**EMPLOYMENT IN GOODS PRODUCING INDUSTRIES COMPARED
WITH EMPLOYMENT IN SERVICE INDUSTRIES 1953-1964**

(Quarterly Data, Seasonally Adjusted)



*SERVICE PRODUCING INDUSTRIES Includes: Transportation, Public Utilities, Trade, Finance and Service

**GOODS PRODUCING INDUSTRIES Includes: Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, Mining, Manufacturing and Construction

This has been due in part to the fact that a good deal of Canada's recent affluence has gone into the improvement of educational and health facilities. The large wave of postwar babies placed great strain on educational structures and staff, and resulted in a lively demand for school teachers, as well as considerable improvement in pay scales. On the other hand, the goods-producing industries have been able to expand output enormously, with little sustained growth in employment.

As postwar shortages of basic commodities were overcome, the Canadian consumer was presented with an enormous cornucopia of consumer goods; at the same time, consumer credit expanded considerably. During the early fifties most people's employment appeared secure, and incomes were rising. Home-and-car-ownership was now a possibility for a much larger proportion of the population than ever before, and a variety of household devices appeared to ease the task of the housewife.

Before World War II housemaids were still available at low wages in most areas. However, the mistress of the house was obliged to stay home to supervise, and she could usually count on changing maids fairly frequently. Here is what Mrs. Scott had to say about the housemaid problem in 1892:

"In Canada the class of domestic servant most universally in demand is the *general*. Owing to the fact that there are but few wealthy people, in the vast majority of cases where servants are kept only one is employed: and the supply of specially trained servants is as limited as the demand for them. Girls who are able to live at home and earn enough to partially support themselves have no inducement to go into domestic service; and in cities the supply of domestics is kept up only by draining the surrounding country of girls who come to the cities for higher wages and other advantages. In some cases too they are imported from Great Britain and Ireland. Of late years so many employments have opened up for women that the supply of domestic servants is rather short of the demand; and, as a consequence, their wages have risen considerably, so that many mistresses of households are obliged to do without or take incompetent servants. An inexperienced girl who goes 'to assist in light housework,' as the advertisements put it, will earn from \$6 to \$7 a month in the city. A good general servant can command from \$8 to \$14 a month, according to her work — 'with or without washing'. In some cases it really amounts to a cook's position, only it seems to be the custom to call it that of a 'general' to avoid such disputes as might arise over questions of work.

* * * *

"The general reluctance of girls to go into service in Canada has been much discussed. Many point out that they are really better off than girls working in factories or shops so far as wages and comfort are concerned. On the other hand the factory or shop girl has certain hours; and when her work is over her time is her own. Then too, many prefer to work where there are a number of other girls employed; and as has been already stated, as long as a girl can live at home and earn a little money at some light employment there is no need for her to go into service. Moreover, there can be no doubt that the social barrier which exists between mistress and maid deters many from service in a new country where class distinctions are not as fixed and definite as in older countries."

During the war, the housemaid who lived in disappeared into the war plants, never to return. Modern household equipment is a mixed blessing for the contemporary housewife in rather the same way as modern industrial equipment is for the industrialist. It does away with certain per-

sonnel problems and its output is high when used efficiently. At the same time it is expensive and has to be paid for, and requires skilled maintenance. Vacuum cleaners, floor polishers, automatic washers and dryers, and other similar equipment still have to be operated, but can be used in odd hours, leaving a good deal of time free for gainful work or other activities. These articles also have their conspicuous consumption aspect, testifying to the affluence and up-to-dateness of their possessors.

Since the thirties the level of living of the population, including the "real" incomes that sustain it, has risen remarkably. The standard of living — that level at which people feel they are comfortably off and not deprived of anything important — has increased also; the availability of a wide range of consumer goods has assisted in the latter process. Yet a considerable proportion of male wage-earners, in fact the majority, do not earn the \$6,000 or so per year that is necessary to move consumption much beyond food, clothing, and shelter. For many Canadian families, however, the earnings of the wife added to those of the husband just succeed in bringing total income up to a fairly comfortable level. If this has not been the main psychological factor that produced the recent large influx of married women into the labour market, it has certainly provided a powerful argument for modifying traditional attitudes in the family setting.

A postwar trend equal in importance to the entry of married women into the labour force has been the movement of women aged 35 to 55 into the world of work. Of course, these two trends have been almost entirely one and the same; it has been the entry of married women of this age group into the labour market that has produced the transformation in the age-and-marital status composition of the female labour force. There have also been large percentage increases in the number of working women aged 55 and over, although their absolute numbers are still relatively small. It is likely that lack of recent work experience has been one of the most important factors inhibiting the growth in the female work force aged 55 and over. If this be true, it is possible to forecast a considerable expansion in the number of working women in this latter age group, as those under 55 now working grow older.

Since about 1958 structural changes in the Canadian economy together with considerable modernization in the goods-producing industries have brought about marked increases in the unemployment rates of men. Women workers have escaped high unemployment rates, possibly in part because most women are in a position to return to housekeeping on losing

a job if they prefer not to seek another one. Mrs. Scott expressed fears that women workers might at some time prove to be unfair competitors with men for scarce jobs:

“Another result of the indiscriminate and extensive employment of women is increasing danger to the life of the home. It is generally conceded that the family is the great safeguard of a nation’s prosperity, and anything which would endanger it cannot but be looked on with disfavour and even alarm. What does the displacing of men by the competition of women at lower wages mean if not that the former often find employment more difficult to obtain or less profitable than formerly, and are less able to provide means of maintenance for a family? Man was intended by nature to be the bread-winner of the family; and if family life is to be maintained such he must remain; so that the persistent usurpation of his place by unfair competition must mean eventually a danger to the continuance of the home. Let women, when they wish to compete with men, meet them on fair ground by demanding equal remuneration.”

It will be one of the tasks of this monograph to demonstrate that men and women workers do not, as a rule, compete in the same labour markets. Yet the fact remains that, seemingly by coincidence, the employment markets for men have been becoming relatively unstable and demand has not been growing with sufficient rapidity to absorb increases in the male labour force; while the demand for women workers has grown tremendously in recent years.

Should this situation deteriorate sufficiently, and one must hasten to say that there is no reason at present to believe it will, the type of competition envisaged by Mrs. Scott could occur. It would be most likely to occur in the clerical and personal service fields, with men seeking jobs in what have heretofore been predominantly female work areas.

As long as women workers remain confined to a relatively restricted range of work areas — whether through choice or circumstances — encroachment will not be welcomed. The solution to these problems must be sought in policies designed to promote economic growth and a labour force adequately trained to sustain growth and adjust to changing technology. In such an economy there would be ample opportunity for women to branch out into new occupational fields. This monograph will attempt to indicate a number of challenging fields of work in which opportunities for women exist, which are not presently being taken advantage of. Should the more optimistic expectations for Canada’s economic future be realized, many more opportunities will present themselves to women with the proper vocational preparation.

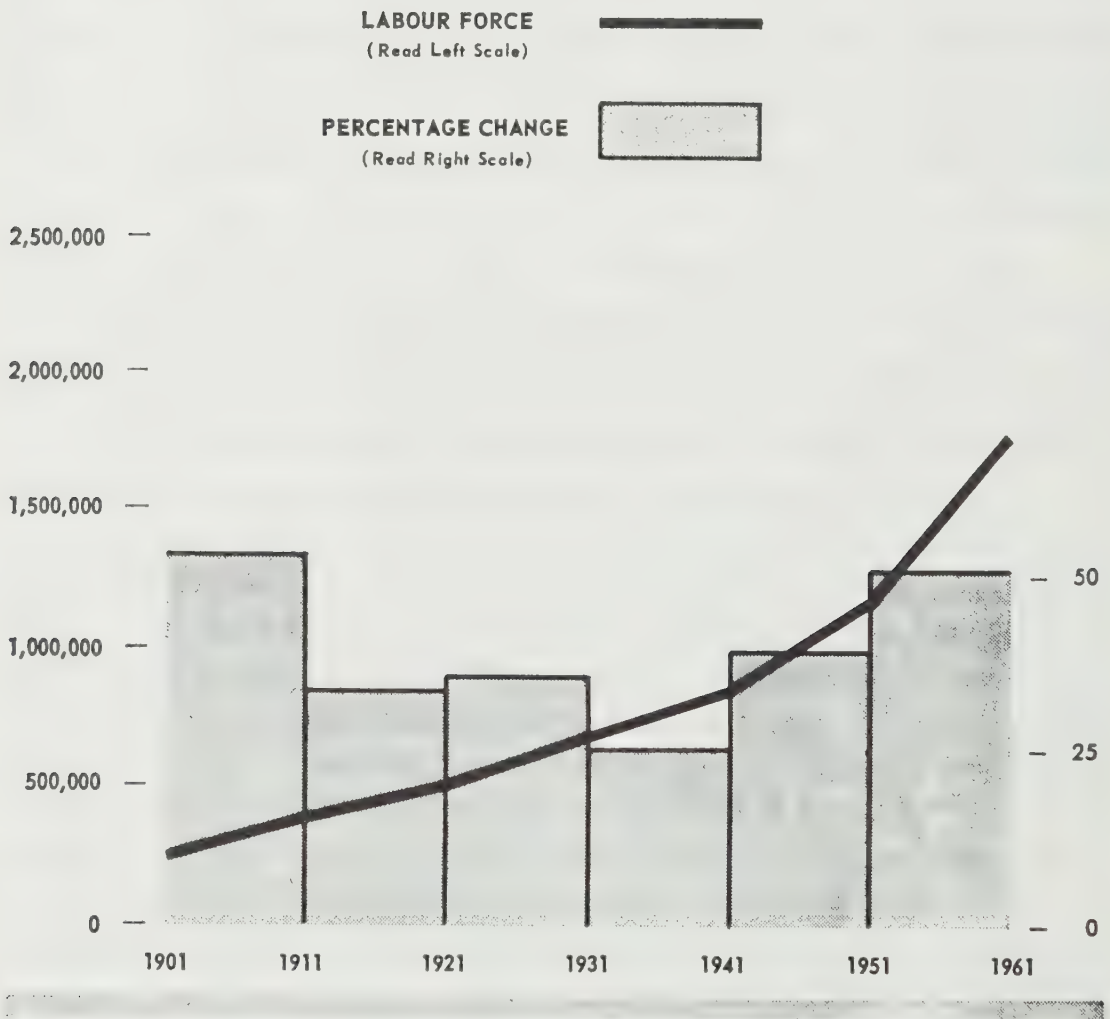
II

Trends in Women's Employment

The chart below reveals that the female labour force of Canada has commenced a period of very rapid growth, comparable to its rate of growth at the turn of the century, but on a much higher base. Much of

Chart 2

WOMEN AT WORK: THE TREND

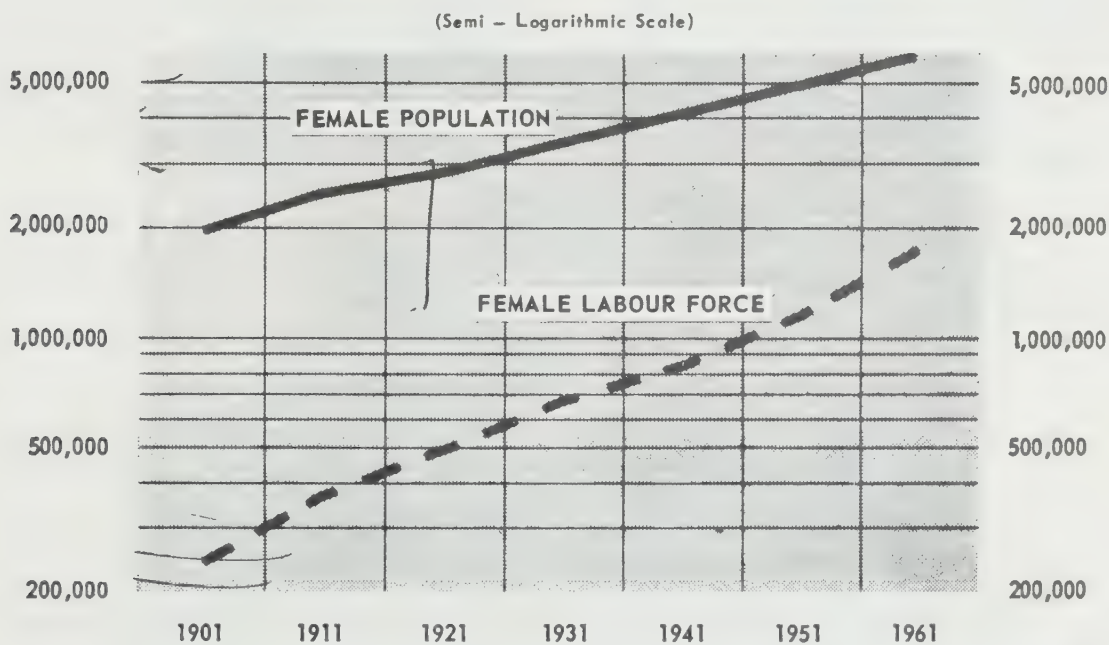


what follows in this monograph will be concerned with this recent trend and some of its implications for the Canadian economy, for Canadian families and for other institutions.

The significance of the trend must be made clear in terms of its stability and the proportions of people involved. First of all, the female labour force has been increasing much faster than the female population of working age.

Chart 3

THE FEMALE LABOUR FORCE HAS GROWN AT A FASTER PACE THAN THE FEMALE POPULATION



This trend may be shown more precisely by examining the percentages of women of working age who have been economically active at various years which are shown in the third column of Table 1. At census time in 1961, 29.5 per cent of women of working age¹ were in the labour force in contrast to 12 per cent at the turn of the century.

¹ Public opinion and practice concerning what constitutes "working age" has changed over the years, and the census labour force ages have changed accordingly.

Table 1

Female Population and Labour Force, Canada,¹ 1901-1961.

Year	Labour Force ²				
	Population ²	No. (000's)	Per Cent Economically Active	Total Labour Force	Percentage of Total Labour Force
	No.		%	(000's) (Male & Female)	%
	(000's)				
1901.....	1,982	238	12.0	1,783	13.3
1911.....	2,552	365	14.3	2,724	13.4
1921.....	2,843	489	17.2	3,164	15.5
1931.....	3,481	665	19.1	3,922	17.0
1941.....	4,133	834	20.2	4,516	18.5
1951.....	4,933	1,164	23.6	5,286	22.0
1961.....	5,984	1,764	29.5	6,458	27.3

¹ Includes Newfoundland (1951 on), but not Yukon and Northwest Territories. Also includes armed services.

² 10 years of age and over in 1901 and 1911.

14 years of age and over in 1921 - 1951.

15 years of age and over in 1961.

SOURCES: *Census of Canada*, 1941, Vol. VII, Table 1.

Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. IV, Table 1.

Census of Canada, 1961, Vol. I, Part 2, Table 20; Advance Report No. AL-1, Table 1.

Labour Force Trend Tables, Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour, Ottawa, 1963, Tables 1 and 3.

Occupational Trends in Canada, 1931 to 1961, Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour, 1963 (working copy), Appendix 3.

The most rapid increase in the percentage of women who are economically active has taken place since 1955. Table 2 shows participation rates* at annual averages from the DBS Labour Force Survey for the years 1951-63.

The period from 1955 to 1961, during which male participation rates at annual averages fell from 82.2 per cent in 1955 to 80.0 per cent in 1961, saw an increase in female participation of almost five percentage points. In the two succeeding years the increases were rather more moderate. The rate of growth of the female labour force in recent decades has not been matched by any parallel growth in the male labour force. This development is in contrast to the 1901-11 period when the growth rate for men workers was almost as great as that of women workers.

Table 2

Participation Rates for the Female Labour Force, Aged 14 and Over, 1951-63.
at Annual Averages.

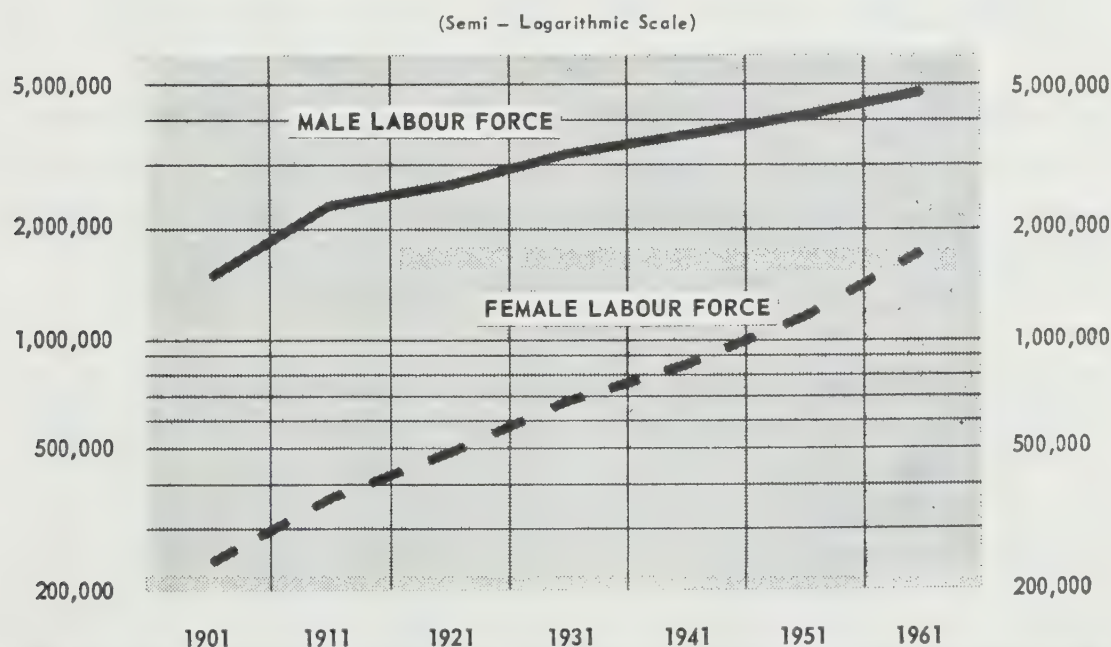
%	%
1951 — 23.5	1958 — 26.3
1952 — 23.7	1959 — 26.7
1953 — 23.4	1960 — 28.0
1954 — 23.7	1961 — 28.8
1955 — 23.9	1962 — 29.1
1956 — 24.9	1963 — 29.6
1957 — 25.8	1964 — 30.5

* Participation rates express the labour force as a percentage of the *civilian, non-institutional population* i.e., total population from which members of the armed services and inmates of institutions have been deducted. There is also a deduction representing Indians on reservations. These percentages would tend to be higher than the activity rates given in Table 1; however, taking the rates at annual averages lowers them in comparison to rates for June alone, as provided by the census.

SOURCE: *The Labour Force*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics (hereafter DBS), Special Surveys Division.

Chart 4

THE MALE LABOUR FORCE HAS GROWN
AT A MORE MODERATE RATE.....



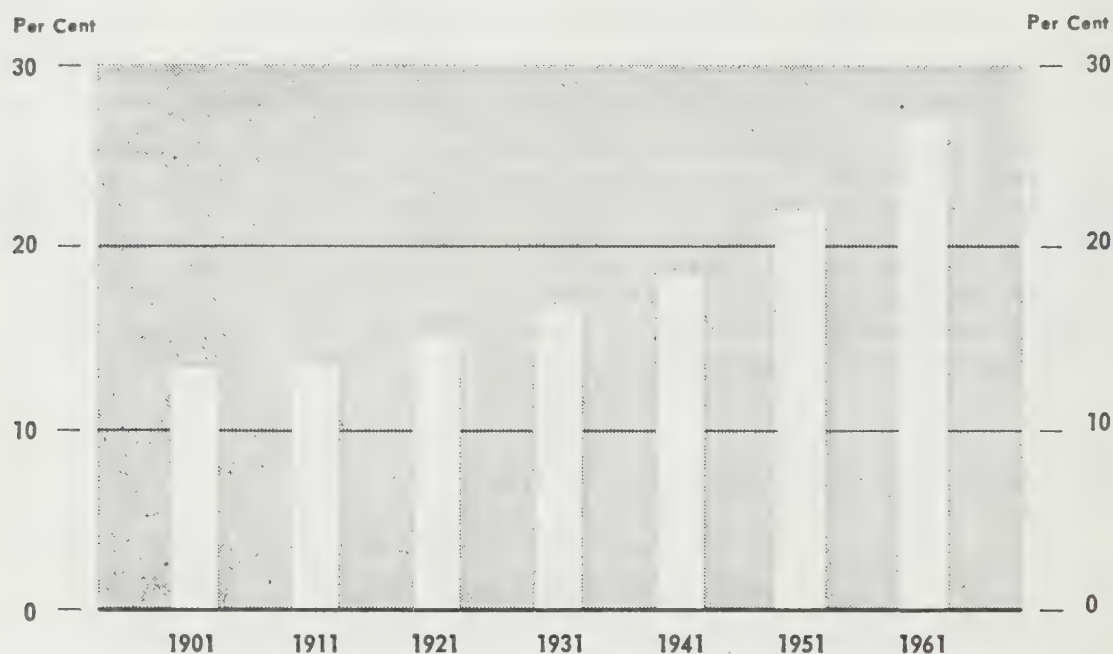
In fact, the proportion of men who are economically active has been declining in recent years with moderate growth rates for the male labour

force (12-14 per cent per decade) deriving from the increase in the male population of working age.

The outcome of these different trends for the two sexes has been a considerable increase in the proportion of the labour force consisting of women. This trend, from 13.3 per cent in 1901 to 27.3 per cent in 1961, was shown in Table 1, and is now repeated graphically in Chart 4.

Chart 5

WOMEN WORKERS IN THE TOTAL LABOUR FORCE



Over the period 1951-63 the female share of the labour force increased steadily with greater momentum during the latter part of the time period. The timing of this trend is set forth in Table 3.

Table 3

Women as a Percentage of the Total Labour Force, 1951-63, at Annual Average.

%	%
1951 — 21.9	1958 — 24.4
1952 — 22.2	1959 — 24.9
1953 — 22.1	1960 — 25.8
1954 — 22.4	1961 — 26.6
1955 — 22.6	1962 — 27.1
1956 — 23.3	1963 — 27.6
1957 — 23.9	1964 — 28.3

SOURCE: *The Labour Force*, op. cit.

Table 4 presents employment trends for persons working in establishments with ten or more employees. Women's employment within this large group of establishments appears to have weathered the recessionary period in the latter half of the 1950's much better than men's employment. This relates (as will be shown in some detail in Chapter 3) to the dissimilarity of men's and women's occupations in the Canadian economy. The general trends shown in Table 4 are similar to those already discussed.

Table 4
Annual Average Index of Employment for Men and Women,
Industrial Composite, Canada, 1949-61.
 (1949 = 100.0)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Index of Employment</i>	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
1949.....	100.0	100.0
1950.....	102.4	101.0
1951.....	110.2	105.3
1952.....	113.3	107.1
1953.....	113.5	111.6
1954.....	109.9	109.9
1955.....	113.0	112.8
1956.....	121.0	119.5
1957.....	122.3	123.7
1958.....	116.7	122.0
1959.....	118.6	123.5
1960.....	117.4	123.1
1961.....	116.3	124.2
1962.....	119.3	128.6

SOURCE: *Employment and Payrolls*, March, 1963, Table 9C, p. 30.

NOTE: The annual average index does not correspond to that given in *Women at work in Canada* (1958). The change in index is reported in *Review of Employment and Payrolls, 1958*; the reason given for the change can be found on page 4 of this Review.

In the year 1961, in which year the average participation rate for women was 28.8 per cent, 34.4 per cent of the female population¹ had some work experience during the year, and 30 per cent worked for 14 or more weeks out of the year. This fact indicates some movement into and out of the labour force on the part of women workers, but not as much as might be imagined. It also suggests that, for recent years, it may be estimated that about one-third of the female population aged 14 years and over has been to some degree involved in the labour market.

¹ The average of the female civilian, non-institutional population aged 14 years and over for the year.

Economic, social, and technological changes in the past half century have played a part in the growth in number of women workers. The increasing mechanization of production processes, with consequent dilution of skills, has resulted in the replacement, in some industries, of craftsmen by operatives, many of whom have been women. But the largest area of new demand for women workers has been in the clerical and service occupations, resulting from the growth of large business organizations and improved general prosperity.

In the early part of this century the great majority of women workers were single or the sole support of families. It was not until World War II that employment of married women outside the home became common. In recent years the shortening of daily hours of work, together with the prevalence of the five-day week, have permitted women to hold jobs at the same time as they fulfil other responsibilities. Development of mechanical aids such as washing machines, vacuum cleaners and other household appliances, and the evolution of packaged prepared foods have helped to reduce the time required for household tasks. There is now also a tendency for women to confine their childbearing to their twenties and early thirties. Finally, there appears to be a growing willingness on the part of families to reallocate household work when the wife and mother takes a job outside the home, though most married working women devote a large proportion of their waking hours to their combined responsibilities.

The recent growth in women's employment has taken place against a background of considerable unemployment of male workers. During the period 1958-63 (which was the period of most rapid increase in female participation rates) the unemployment rates¹ for men (at annual averages) ranged between 6½ per cent and 8 per cent of the male labour force. The ability of women's employment to withstand downturns in the business cycle has already been noted. It is also worth noting that in Canada female unemployment rates are always substantially lower than the unemployment rates of the male labour force. This is the reverse of the situation that exists in the United States, where women have consistently higher unemployment rates than men.

The data in Table 5, which gives male and female participation rates by province suggests that female participation is partly a function of the degree of urbanization and industrialization of particular areas and partly of the prevailing level of economic activity.

¹ Unemployment rates signify the number of persons unemployed expressed as a percentage of the labour force.

Table 5

**Percentage of the Population in the Labour Force.
By Sex and Province, Census 1961.**

	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Newfoundland	18.4	64.4
Prince Edward Island.....	24.7	76.1
Nova Scotia	24.5	73.5
New Brunswick	24.8	71.1
Quebec	27.9	76.7
Ontario	32.6	80.7
Manitoba	31.5	78.1
Saskatchewan	26.4	78.1
Alberta	30.8	80.6
British Columbia	28.3	74.1

There is a high degree of correlation (approximately .90) between male and female participation rates in the various provinces, which suggests that demand for the services of women is a function of demand for labour in general.

Thus it may be seen that, as the outcome of a period of rapid transformation, Canada now has a work force 30 per cent of which consists of women and a society in which just about one third of its adult women work in some kind of job other than housework. From another point of view it may be pointed out that at any one time two-thirds of the female population of Canada are not gainfully employed. It would be interesting to know whether the possibility of gainful employment has any considerable place in the outlook of this large group of homemakers, or whether a large proportion of them uphold a view that defines the domain of women in terms of homemaking and child rearing.

Except for a tendency to stay in school longer and to retire earlier, the work pattern of men in Canada has not changed very much during the present century. Sometime during their teens or early twenties young men begin their working lives, and they remain at work for as long as circumstances permit. The work patterns of women cannot be as simply stated. Some work all their adult lives while others remain homemakers throughout. A third pattern is becoming increasingly widespread wherein, for certain periods of their lives, women devote their energies to raising families while, for other periods, they are gainfully employed. More will

be said about this later; for the present it is sufficient to suggest that this latter phenomenon may have a good deal of bearing on recent increases in the supply of women workers. It is also reasonable to assume, although this cannot be substantiated at present, that the steady and growing demand for the services of women workers is having its effect on the outlook of the two-thirds of the female population which is not gainfully employed at any particular time.

The employment of large numbers of women now evident in Canada is by no means unusual throughout the world. In many countries with predominantly agricultural economies, women engage in agriculture as members of family groups. At the other extreme, many highly industrialized countries that have been faced with persistent labour shortages make good use of the labour potential of women. As has been the case for Canada, participation rates for women in the United States have been rising steadily throughout the present century. As of June 1963 female participation rates¹ stood at 37.8 per cent, and the 25.7 million women in the United States labour force represented almost one-third of the total labour force. In the United Kingdom, for June 1962, female paid workers (plus those registered for employment) numbered 8.6 million representing 40.1 per cent of the female civilian population aged 15 and over and 34.4 per cent of the total civilian working population.²

Both the United States' and British rates for labour force activity of women have been rising in recent years and, since Canada resembles these countries a great deal, both socially and industrially, their levels of female participation might well be attained in Canada at some future time. In Britain there have been labour shortages in recent years and there is perhaps more of a tradition than in either Canada or the United States of women engaging in factory work.

In order to assess the significance of the recent growth in the number of women at work in Canada it is necessary to know something about who these women are: in particular, their age distribution, marital status, family situations, and educational backgrounds. These questions will be considered in Chapter III.

¹ On the basis of a civilian non-institutional population and a labour force definition very similar to that used in Canada.

² This corresponds to the "paid workers" segment of the labour force in Canadian labour force statistics; own-account workers are omitted.

III

Characteristics of Women Workers

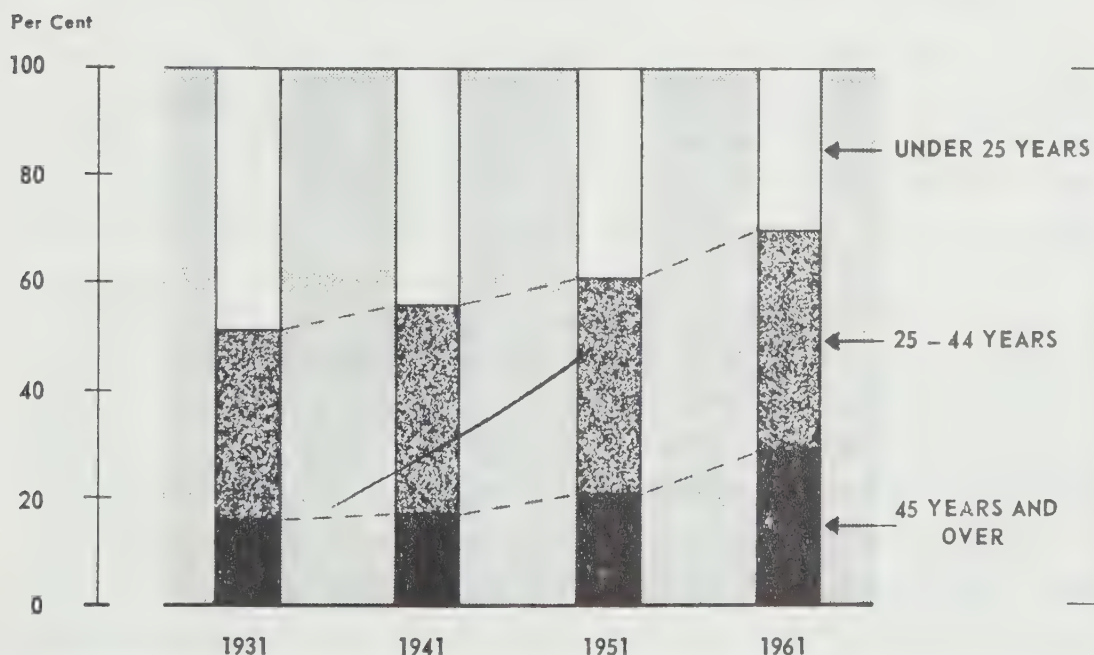
The growth of female labour force participation raises many questions about the implications and consequences of this trend for the society as a whole. One such question, which lies outside the scope of this analysis, is how the modern working woman fits into the traditional pictures of wife and husband and mother and child. Another question concerns standards of living: it is evident that the entry of large numbers of new wage-earners into the labour market must introduce some changes into the previous distribution of incomes; the extent of these changes is by no means so obvious.

In order to obtain such partial answers as may be had from information of a large-scale statistical nature, we will first examine some of the characteristics of the female labour force.

Age

Chart 6

THE PER CENT OF WOMEN WORKERS OVER 45 IS RISING



The majority of the female labour force (as of the adult population) lies in the 25 to 64 year age range. Nevertheless, participation of women in this range shows substantially lower levels (as is shown in Table 6) than those displayed by women in the 20 to 24 year age group.

Table 6

Women and Men in Labour Force by Age Groups, Canada, June 1964.

(Estimates in 1,000's)¹

<i>Age</i>	<i>Women</i>		<i>Men</i>	
	<i>No.</i>	<i>Participation Rate²</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Participation Rate²</i>
14-19.....	309	31.2	430	42.2
20-24.....	343	51.7	598	93.3
25-44.....	757	31.8	2,300	98.2
45-64.....	531	32.0	1,554	92.7
65 and over.....	45	6.3	175	27.3
All ages	1,985	31.0	5,057	80.0

¹ All figures exclude inmates of institutions, members of the armed services, Indians living on reserves, and residents of the Yukon and Northwest Territories.

² The labour force as a percentage of the population 14 years of age and over.

SOURCE: *The Labour Force*, DBS., Special Surveys Division, Week ended June 20, 1964, Table 1.

The very opposite is true of men. Enough young men carry their vocational preparation on into their twenties to keep participation rates for the group aged 20 to 24 below the maximum. The period of life that begins in the middle twenties and continues into the sixties is one of maximum family responsibilities. This is equally true for women, but, while it is universally accepted that the major imperative for a man is to earn a living for his family, tradition assigns to the woman the activities of homemaking and child care. However, with modern homes and household equipment, together with longer life expectancy, early marriages, and family planning, the traditional role of wife and mother need not be a full-time occupation for more than a portion of a woman's adult life.

Table 7 indicates that the group aged 45 to 54 has shown the fastest-rising participation rates of any of the age groups shown. Of all groups aged 25 and over, this one now shows the highest participation rate, whereas in 1950, it had one of the lowest. The rise in the participation rates of women aged 35 to 44 has been almost as striking.

Table 7

**Participation Rates of the Canadian Female Labour Force,
by Age, at Annual Averages, Selected Years, 1950-63.**

<i>Age</i>	<i>1950</i>	<i>1954</i>	<i>1956</i>	<i>1960</i>	<i>1961</i>	<i>1962</i>	<i>1963</i>
14-19.....	33.0	33.6	33.9	32.6	32.4	31.0	29.9
20-24.....	46.4	46.6	47.1	48.1	48.8	49.7	50.0
25-34.....	24.0	24.4	25.1	27.3	28.1	28.3	29.2
35-44.....	20.5	22.1	23.8	29.4	30.1	31.0	31.7
45-54.....	18.9	21.1	24.4	30.4	32.2	33.3	34.7
55-64.....	13.2	14.0	15.9	21.2	23.2	23.8	24.7
65 and over.....	4.2	3.7	4.5	5.5	5.8	5.5	5.8
All ages.....	23.2	23.7	24.9	28.0	28.8	29.1	29.6

SOURCE: *The Labour Force*, op. cit.

Teen-aged girls have shown moderate declines in participation, which reflects both an extension of schooling and, to a slight extent, a redistribution of population within the 14-19 age group (relatively more 14-16 year olds). The group aged 55 to 64 has also almost doubled its participation rates since 1950, while the participation rates for women aged 65 and over have increased, but rather slowly. The lower rates for women aged 55 and over may well reflect lower demand for their services. As we shall see, the occupations of older women are quite different from those of the younger age groups. Two of the problems of women in the older age group at present (from the standpoint of competitiveness in the labour market) are relatively low levels of education and training and lack of recent work experience. With the aging of the group now 45 to 54, these barriers should tend to disappear.

Marital Status

It has become a commonplace that, in Canada, the great majority of people get married, and at progressively earlier ages. This is very much the case for Canadian women. The 1961 census shows that 86 per cent of all women aged 20 and over, and 89½ per cent of all women aged 25 and over were married (or widowed, divorced, or separated). The median age at marriage¹ of women never previously married has worked its way steadily downward from 23.2 years in 1940 to 21.1 years in 1962.

¹ The age so selected that, of all the single women becoming married in that year, half were above the age and half under it. This means that half the women who married for the first time in 1962 were just 21 or younger.

Chart 7

ALMOST HALF OF THE WOMEN WHO WORK ARE MARRIED

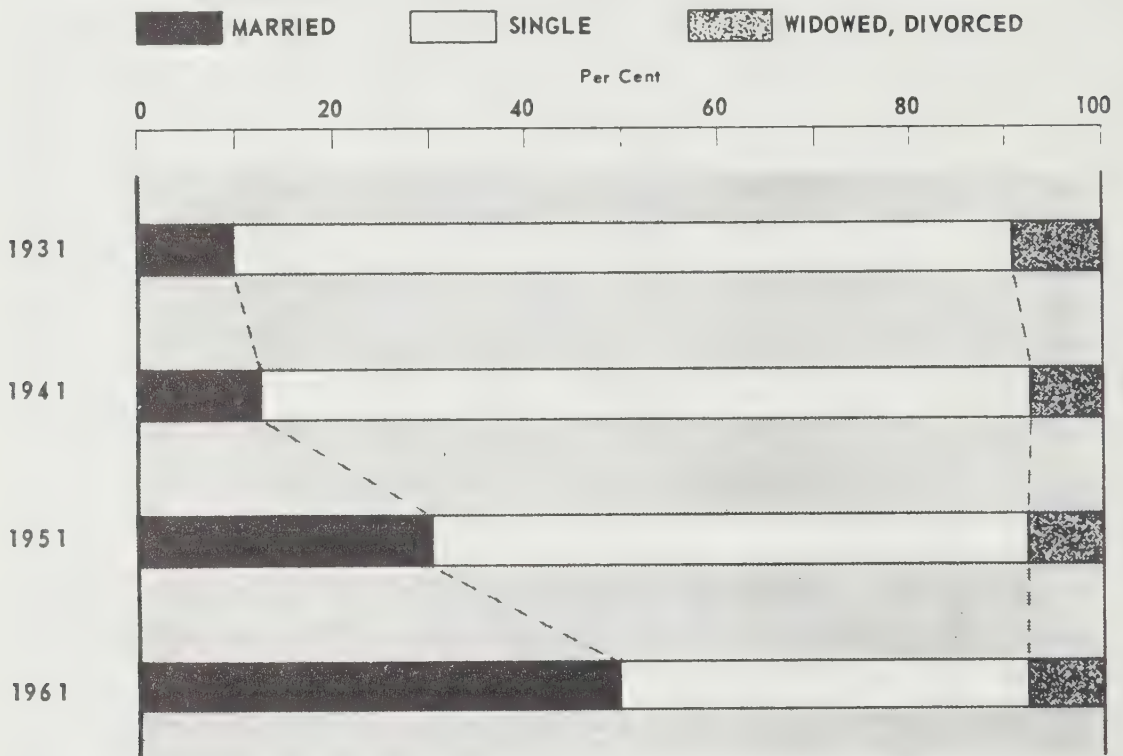


Table 8 shows how the female labour force has changed in composition as between single women (those never married) and others in the years since 1931. Prior to World War II it was unusual in Canada for a married woman to be hired or to remain on the job after marriage. Civilian mobilization in wartime (which was not yet really underway in 1941) demonstrated that married women could perform successfully in many areas of work, without creating unusual personnel problems and without disastrous social consequences.

The "married" category in Table 8 includes both married women who were living with their husbands as well as those who were separated. The situation of separated married women, in regard to work, is similar to that of widowed and divorced women, and, apart from the possible presence of children, to that of single women. The census does provide a count of married women living with their husbands who were in the labour force, which is given in a footnote to Table 8. It may be seen, therefore, that, in June 1961, 42.3 per cent of the female labour force was composed of women who had never married, 44.9 per cent of married women living with their husbands, and 12.8 per cent of widowed, divorced, and separated women.

Table 9 shows that age for age, as well as in the aggregate, the participation rates of married women who are living with their husbands are substantially lower than those of women in general. The next section will demonstrate that this is associated with the presence of children in the household.

Table 8

Marital Status of Women in the Labour Force, Canada⁴ 1931-61.¹

<i>Marital Status</i>	<i>1931 (10+)</i>		<i>1941² (14+)</i>		<i>1951 (14+)</i>		<i>1961 (15+)</i>	
	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>
Single.....	537,657	80.7	665,623	79.9	723,433	62.1	746,310	42.3
Married ³	66,798	10.0	105,942	12.7	348,961	30.0	877,794	49.8 ⁵
Other.....	61,335	9.2	61,237	7.4	91,927	7.9	139,758	7.9
Not stated.....	69	—	38	—	—	—	—	—
Total ⁴	665,859	99.9	832,840	100.0	1,164,321	100.0	1,763,862	100.0

¹ Statistics from 1931 Census are for age group 10 and over. Statistics from 1931-1951 Census are for age group 14 and over. Statistics from 1961 Census are for age group 15 and over.

² Not including persons on active service.

³ Including permanently separated.

⁴ Including Newfoundland (1951 on) but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

⁵ Married women who were living with their husbands and working numbered 791,685 or 44.9 per cent of the female labour force in 1961.

SOURCES: *Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901-1951*, DBS, Table 9.

DBS, 1961 Census, *Advance Report No. AL-1* (Cat. No. 94-500), Table 2.

DBS, 1931 Census, Vol. VII, Table 55; Table 26.

Table 9

Percentage in the Labour Force of Women and of Married Women Living With Their Husbands, by Age, Census 1961.

<i>Age</i>	<i>Married Women</i>	
	<i>All Women</i>	<i>Living with Husbands</i>
15-25.....	40.4	26.0
25-34.....	29.5	20.3
35-44.....	31.0	23.8
45-54.....	33.3	24.7
55-64.....	24.4	6.8
65 and over.....	6.7	3.4
Total.....	29.5	20.8

The Working Mother

The statistical fact of the entry of large numbers of women into the labour force has tended to conjure up a picture of a married woman living with her husband, with children at home. Of course many women who work do have such a family situation, but in 1961, they amounted to only 22.6 per cent of the female labour force and 50.4 per cent of the married working women who were living with their husbands. In other words, less than half of the women who work are married women living with their husbands, and, of these, about half have no children under the age of 16.

Table 10, which is based on husband-wife families, illustrates the effects of the presence of dependent children on the labour force participation of married women.

Table 10

Percentage of Wives (Living With Their Husbands) Who were in the Labour Force, by Age and Number of Children Aged Under 16 Years, Census 1961.

<i>Age of Wife</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Number of Children</i>		
		<i>None</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2 or More</i>
15-25.....	26.0	52.0	17.4	9.2
25-34.....	20.3	57.4	25.0	12.9
35-44.....	23.8	44.3	29.5	16.2
45-54.....	24.7	29.1	22.0	15.8
55-64.....	6.8	14.8	12.0	—
65 and over.....	3.4	—	—	—
All ages	20.8	27.0	23.6	14.1

It is clear that the presence of children in the family leads to substantially lower participation rates for wives in all age groups.

Yet, even though participation rates were low, the working mothers from families with both husband and wife present numbered about 400,000 in 1961, and there were about 800,000 children in these families. These numbers guarantee that the situation of working mothers and their children will continue to attract public attention.

In 1956 the Department of Labour, in co-operation with a number of universities across Canada, undertook a sample survey of married working women in eight Canadian cities.¹ The proportion of these women

¹ *Married Women Working for Pay*, Department of Labour, 1958.

with dependent children was about the same as in the 1961 Census, and about half of the women with any dependent children had pre-school children. Relatively little use was made, by the women in the sample, of organized child-care facilities, the two most common arrangements being a grandparent in the home or the husband and wife working at different times. In general, the women appeared to be quite well satisfied with their child-care arrangements. The women in the sample were generally full-time workers, and tended to feel that it would be uneconomical for them to work part time. Since the time of the study there has been a considerable increase in Canada in the amount of part-time work performed by women, so that it is entirely likely that a survey taken now would show quite different results in this respect.

Part-time Work

The recent growth in the size of the female labour force has been accompanied by an exceptional increase in the number of part-time women workers. In 1959 there were 241,000 regular part-time workers¹ in the female labour force, amounting to 15.5 per cent of the average labour force for the year. By 1963 the number of regular part-time women workers had grown by 47 per cent to 354,000, and amounted to 19.1 per cent of the labour force.

It may well be that recent reductions in the length of the normal work week have contributed as much as anything to the increasing supply of women workers. The 40-hour week is now normal in industry generally, while in the office the five-day week is almost universal, with the working day consisting of seven and a half or seven hours. On such a work schedule, the care of school-aged children becomes much less of a problem than formerly except for the hours between school closing and a parent's return from work. But even working a 35-hour week, a woman who attempts to combine with it anything approaching a full load of housework must work very long hours indeed.

This being the situation, paid employment on a part-time basis must appear attractive to married women contemplating employment. The findings of the 1956 survey of married working women were that under 15 per cent of these women worked less than a 35-hour week; that the proportion of part-time workers increased with the size of the husband's

¹ At annual averages, the part-time workers referred to here are persons in the labour force who normally work less than 35 hours per week.

income and with the number of children in the family; and that the majority of full-time workers did not feel they could earn enough on a part-time basis to make working worthwhile.

There are certain fixed costs attached to going out to work, whether full- or part-time; for transportation, meals, clothing, and often for household help and child care. In order to make working feasible a married woman must clear these costs and have enough left over to make working advantageous. Most women do not earn high incomes by male standards, for a variety of reasons to be discussed later. While women from families at the higher income levels may go to work for largely non-economic motives, the economic reasons for working are so prominent in most cases that there is very little option but to work full-time.

Family and Work — The Emerging Pattern

We have seen that, in Canada, most women get married sometime in their early twenties, and that this is a period in life that, for the statistical aggregate, is accompanied by a sharp drop in labour force participation rates. We have also seen that labour force participation rates remain high for childless married women and may reasonably conclude, therefore, that decreased labour force participation is associated with the rearing of children. While participation rates for women in their late thirties and forties are not much higher than those of women in the age groups immediately lower, they reveal a much more rapid upward trend, a fact which suggests that a back-to-work movement has been in progress.

The analysis of attitudes and work histories of the women interviewed in the Survey of Married Women,¹ suggests that the needs of their families come ahead of career motivations for most working married women. The desire to raise the family standard of living was found to be overwhelmingly, the main reason for working given by women in the survey. When children were born these women typically retired from the labour force for a time to take care of them.²

The woman who remained in the labour force after children were born usually had a relative living at home and taking care of them, worked different hours from those of her husband, or, in general, had some unusual child-care arrangement or a particularly urgent need to work. Less than a third of the working mothers in the survey had pre-school children.

¹ *Occupational Histories of Married Women Working for Pay*, Department of Labour, 1959. See also *Married Women Working for Pay*, 1958.

² The older women in the survey had mostly left the labour force upon marriage rather than when their first children were born. Prior to World War II most employers did not hire or retain married women as employees.

The younger women tended to return to work when some emergency or special family project (such as buying a house) required their financial contribution. Once back in the labour force they commonly remained at work; multiple re-entries were found to be few in number.

In summary, there is some reason to believe that a new type of feminine life-pattern is being increasingly accepted, in which a woman leaves the labour force upon the birth of her first child and remains at home while her children are small. Then, at some later time, depending on her individual circumstances, she returns permanently to work.

It must be emphasized that this is only one of a number of ways of life of women in contemporary Canadian society. Many women must work — the single, widowed, divorced, and separated women, as well as those married women whose husbands are, for one reason or another, unable to earn an adequate income. Some women have substantial occupational qualifications and the capability of earning high incomes; for these, child-care problems do not present as much of an obstacle to working as they do to women whose earning powers are more moderate. And finally, there are still many women, perhaps the majority, who, at marriage or soon after, make homemaking their sole occupation.

IV

Women's Occupations and Training

While there are women workers to be found doing a great many types of work, the great majority engage in a limited number of occupations which cluster into a few broad groups. The ten occupations listed in Table 11 account for almost two-thirds of all female workers in 1961. These occupations are mostly "white collar" in nature, the three exceptions being in personal service, manufacturing and agriculture.

Table 11

Ten Leading Occupations of Women in Canada, 1961.

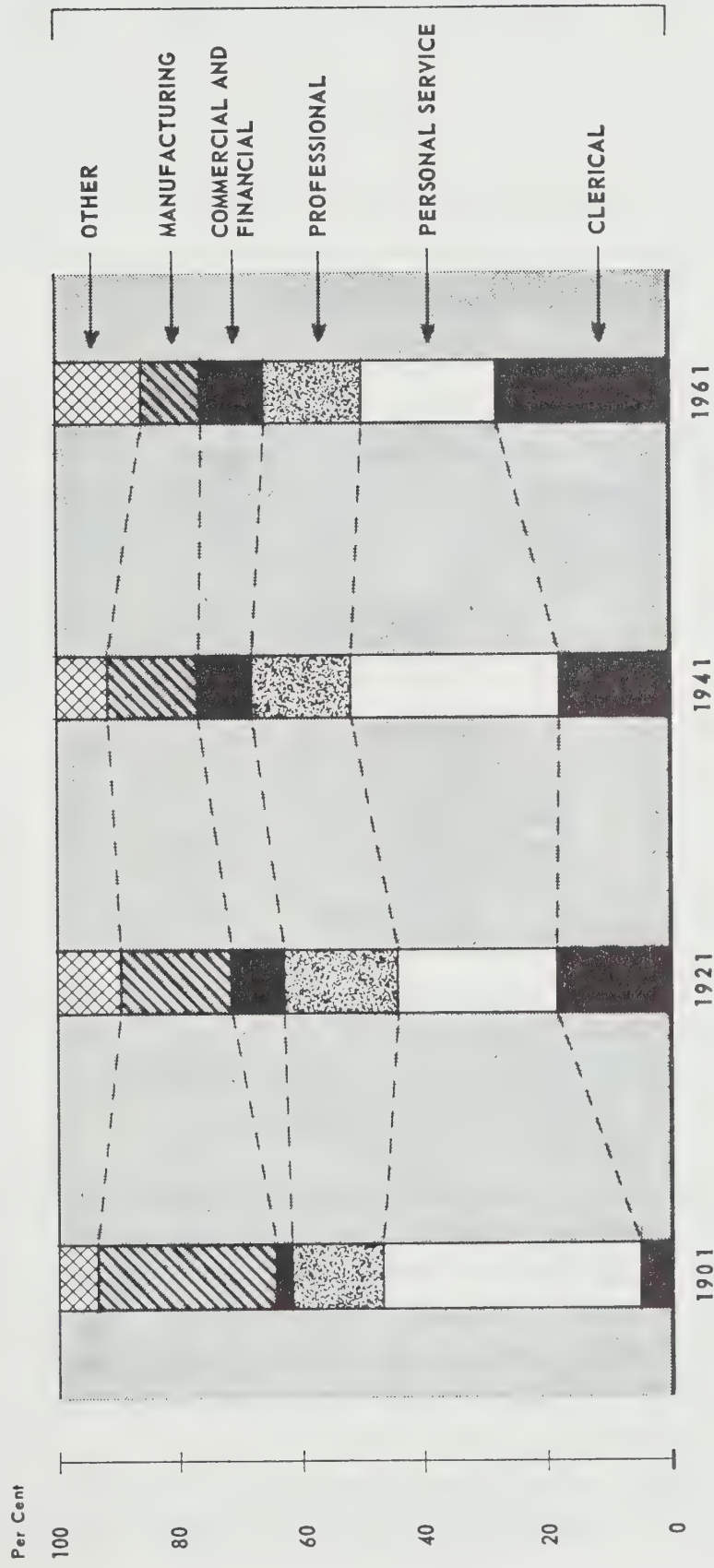
<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Women as Percentage of All Workers</i>
Stenographers, Typists and Clerk-Typists	209,410	11.9	96.8
Clerical Occupations, n.e.s.....	165,613	9.4	51.2
Sales Clerks	133,234	7.6	58.0
Maids and Related Service Workers, n.e.s.	120,161	6.8	88.1
School Teachers	118,594	6.7	70.7
Bookkeepers and Cashiers	98,663	5.6	62.6
Nurses, Graduate and in-Training.....	81,868	4.6	96.8
Farm Labourers	66,081	3.7	29.7
Waitresses	61,802	3.5	78.6
Sewers and Sewing Machine Operators....	50,592	2.9	90.5
10 Occupations	1,106,018	62.7	66.3
Total female labour force	1,763,862	100.0	27.3

NOTE: Including Newfoundland, but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Vol. 3, Part 1, Table 6.

Chart 8

THE MAIN OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS HAVE BEEN.....



A RELATIVE MOVEMENT OF WOMEN INTO CLERICAL WORK
AND OUT OF MANUFACTURING AND PERSONAL SERVICE

The broad groupings that account for the majority of the female labour force are: Clerical, Personal Service, Professional, Commercial and Financial, and Manufacturing occupations. These have been the main occupational fields for women since the turn of the century (as is shown in Table 12), although their relative positions have shifted. Since 1901 clerical work has increased steadily in importance, while manufacturing and personal service have declined. "Other" occupations have increased somewhat over the last two censuses, the main change over the decade of the 1950's being an increase in the number of unpaid family workers on farms. More will be said about this fact later.

Table 12

Percentage Distribution of Working Women by Leading Occupational Groups, Canada,¹ 1901-1961.

<i>Occupational Group</i>	<i>1901⁴</i>	<i>1911</i>	<i>1921</i>	<i>1931</i>	<i>1941⁵</i>	<i>1951</i>	<i>1961</i>
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Clerical	5.3	9.4	18.7	17.7	18.3	27.5	28.6
Personal Service	42.0	37.1	25.8	33.8	34.2	21.0	22.1
Professional	14.7	12.7	19.1	17.8	15.7	14.4	15.5
Commercial and Financial	2.4	6.8	8.5	8.3	8.8	10.5	10.2
Manufacturing and Mechanical ²	29.6	26.3	17.8	12.7	15.4	14.6	9.9
Other ³	6.0	7.8	10.1	9.6	7.7	11.9	13.6
Total ³	100.0	100.1	100.0	99.9	100.1	99.9	99.9

¹ Includes Newfoundland (1951 on), but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

² Includes stationary enginemen and occupations associated with electric power production.

³ Includes armed forces.

⁴ 10 years of age and over in 1901; 15 years of age and over 1911-1961.

⁵ Not including active service, 1941.

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Bulletin 3.1-1, Table 3.

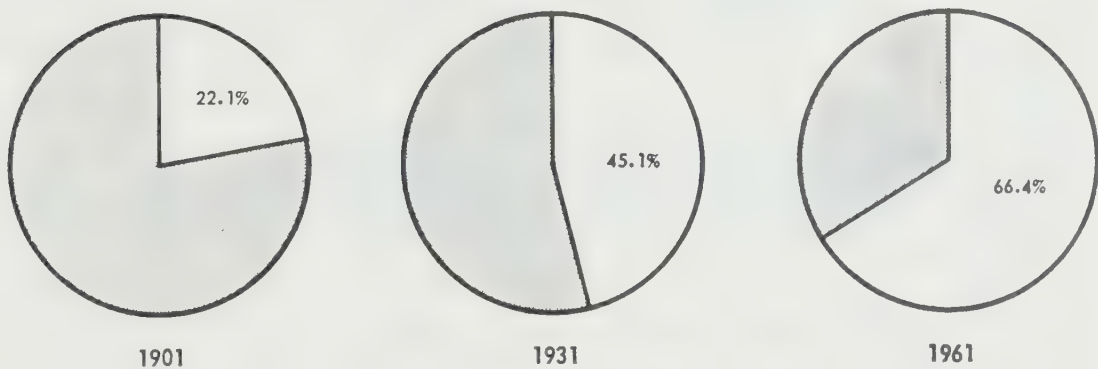
The ten leading female occupations in 1961 were also, with one exception, occupations in which women outnumbered men. This was particularly true of stenographers and typists, and of nurses, practically all of whom were women. Maids and waitresses are feminine occupations by definition: the percentages in Table 11 indicate that in these occupations women outnumbered their male counterparts: "kitchen helpers and related service workers, n.e.s." and "waiters".

Table 13 shows that "personal service" and "clerical" occupations — the broad occupational groups that, in 1961, employed the two largest

segments of the female labour force — also had more female than male workers. In the “professional” and “commercial and financial” groups, the female share of employment was also quite high.

Chart 9

WOMEN'S SHARE OF CLERICAL OCCUPATIONS



..... HAS INCREASED REMARKABLY SINCE
THE TURN OF THE CENTURY

It is instructive to consider the types of occupations in which women are not commonly employed. Women are thoroughly absent from production occupations in primary industries (mining, logging, fishing) except for agriculture, where they appear primarily as unpaid family workers. Women are also absent from the “heavy industry” segment of manufacturing. Women in manufacturing are found principally in food processing occupations, clothing and textile manufacture, in electronics assembly, as well as in a few metal-working occupations and the ancillary activities of bottling, wrapping, and labelling. They are absent from transportation occupations proper (although telephone operator, a woman’s occupation, appears in the Transportation and Communications group of the census classification).

There is still a noticeable lack of women in Engineering (less than one quarter of one per cent of the total group) and in Law ($2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent),

and also in the Proprietary and Managerial ranks in most industries, the exceptions being the Agricultural, Retail Trade, and Personal Service industries.

Table 13

**Women as Percentage of All Workers in Major Occupational Groups
Canada,¹ 1901-1961.**

<i>Occupational Group</i>	<i>1901²</i>	<i>1911</i>	<i>1921</i>	<i>1931</i>	<i>1941³</i>	<i>1951</i>	<i>1961</i>
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Personal Service	71.7	66.8	68.7	69.5	72.8	64.1	66.4
Clerical	22.1	32.6	41.8	45.1	50.1	56.7	61.5
Professional	42.5	44.6	54.1	49.5	46.1	43.5	43.2
Commercial and Financial	10.4	19.1	23.0	23.1	29.4	35.2	36.7
Manufacturing and Mechanical	24.8	25.5	24.0	18.7	19.0	18.7	16.8
Agricultural	1.2	1.7	1.7	2.1	1.7	3.9	11.7
Proprietary and Managerial	3.6	4.5	4.3	4.8	7.2	8.9	10.3
Transportation and Communication	1.4	3.5	8.4	6.5	5.3	8.2	7.9
All Occupations ⁴	13.3	13.2	15.4	17.0	19.9	22.0	27.3

¹ Includes Newfoundland (1951 on), but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

² 10 years of age and over, 1901; 15 years of age and over, 1911-1961.

³ Not including active service, 1941.

⁴ Includes armed forces.

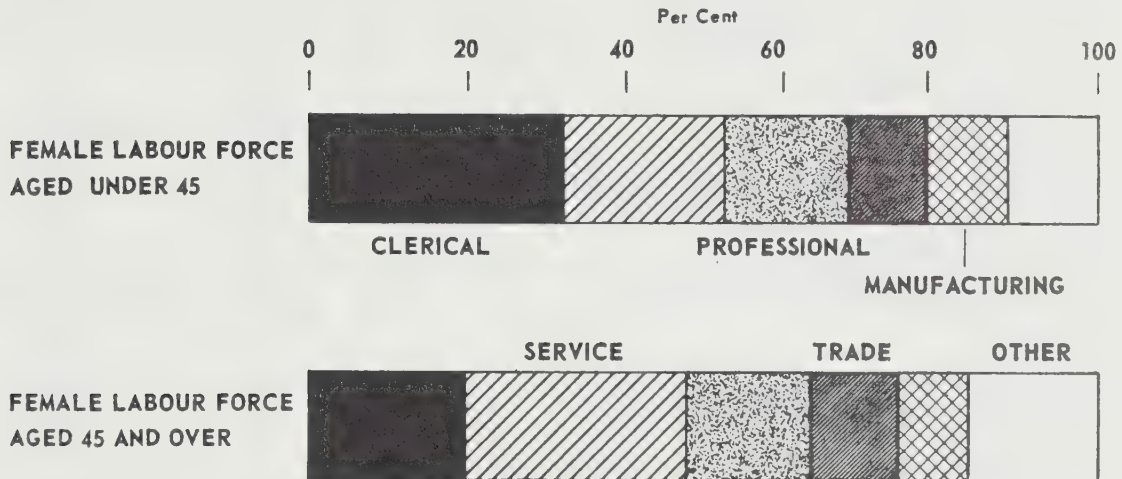
SOURCES: *Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada* — SP8 (1951 Census publication).
1961 *Census of Canada*, Vol. 3, Part 1, Table 3.

Many of the characteristically male occupations tend to be subject to seasonal and cyclical fluctuations in employment; many are obviously unsuitable for most women by reason of poor physical working conditions associated with the job. Not even the most ardent feminist would care to see women employed in production work in logging or steelworking. At the same time, there would seem to be many professional, technical, and managerial spheres which could absorb more women than at present, provided qualified candidates were available, and provided also that certain barriers to their entry were overcome.

Just as women tend to be specialized within a certain range of occupational activities, so, within this group of occupations, there is a considerable amount of segregation by age. Table 14 shows, in some detail, the way in which this occurs.

Chart 10

**A LARGE PROPORTION OF YOUNGER WOMEN
DO CLERICAL WORK....**



**..... WHILE MANY OLDER WOMEN
ARE IN SERVICE OCCUPATIONS**

In general, the women in clerical work tend to be young, while the women in personal service occupations (with the exception of hair-dressers and waitresses) tend to be older. School teachers are a bit older than average, while nurses are considerably younger (partly due to the inclusion of the group still in training).¹

Clerical Work

Since the 1870's, when typewriters were first introduced into offices, women have operated them. This near-monopoly has been extended to a whole range of key-operated business machines—adding machines, billing machines, keypunch machines, cash registers, and calculators. As the size of business enterprises has increased over the years, the amount of paper work and filing has increased many fold, creating a lively market for clerical personnel.

¹ As will be shown later, the age distribution in service occupations is almost entirely a matter of lower educational levels of older women; the situation in clerical occupations is partly due to differential educational levels.

Table 14

**Percentage Distribution of Women by Broad Age Groups in 20
Leading Occupations, Canada 1961.**

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Age Under 45</i>	<i>45 and Over</i>
All Occupations	71.2	28.8
Stenographers, Typists, Clerk-Typists	82.7	17.3
Clerical Occupations, n.e.s.	75.9	24.1
Sales Clerks	67.2	32.8
Maid and Related Service Workers, n.e.s.	59.6	40.4
School Teachers	67.4	32.6
Bookkeepers and Cashiers	79.6	20.4
Nurses, Graduate and in-Training	80.0	20.0
Farm Labourers	63.6	36.4
Waitresses	82.7	17.3
Sewers and Sewing Machine Operators	75.4	24.6
Nursing Assistants and Aides	69.8	30.2
Telephone Operators	76.9	23.1
Janitors and Cleaners, Building	47.2	52.8
Bottlers, Wrappers, Labelers	80.0	20.0
Cooks	50.0	50.0
Lodging and Boarding House Keepers	47.9	52.1
Barbers, Hairdressers, Manicurists	82.1	17.9
Laundresses and Dry Cleaners	68.8	31.2
Owners and Managers, Retail Trade	42.1	57.9
Office Appliance Operators	89.1	10.9

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Vol. 3, Part 1, Table 7.

Rationalization of filing and of office organization has made it possible to employ large numbers of young women in these jobs, despite the high turnover rates that such a policy entails. In most offices a young person with a minimum of vocational training will do for most of the non-supervisory jobs. Great personal initiative is not required for most of these jobs, and there is some resistance to hiring a person who might be "too set in her ways". A youthful temporary clerical work-force also relieves the employer of the necessity of having full-scale provision for pensions¹ for this segment of his work-force.

The nature of clerical work has been changing over recent years: the modern dictating machine has made a knowledge of shorthand somewhat superfluous and has caused some shift in demand from the steno-

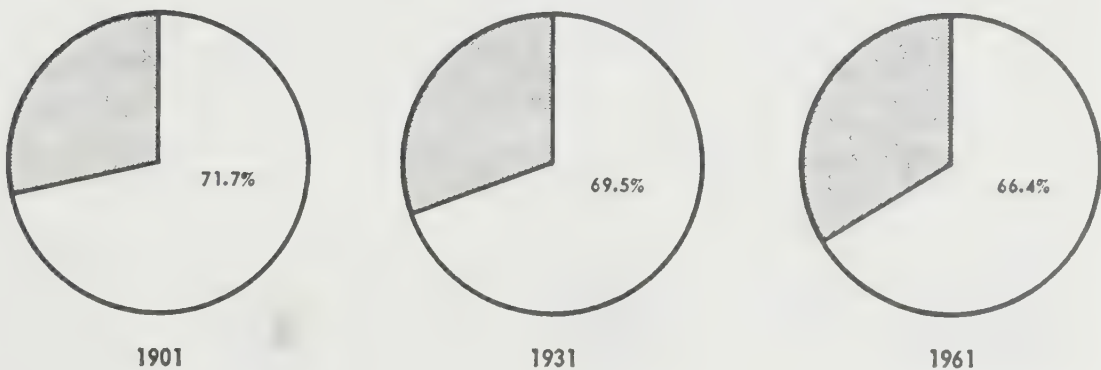
¹ Pension considerations are said to be important, in the U.S.A. for many companies who insist upon hiring only young women. See *Woman Power*: National Manpower Council, 1957, p. 103.

grapher to the typist. The introduction of computers into office work has lessened the demand for clerical workers who do only routine computations and filing but has increased the demand for keypunch operators to prepare data for input. Computers have the potential to do away with a great deal of routine clerical work though, as yet, there have been no serious consequences of this nature in Canada. The demand for typists should continue to expand throughout the foreseeable future.

Personal Service

Chart 11

THE PROPORTION OF PERSONAL SERVICE WORKERS
WHO ARE WOMEN...



...HAS REMAINED FAIRLY CONSTANT
THROUGH THE YEARS

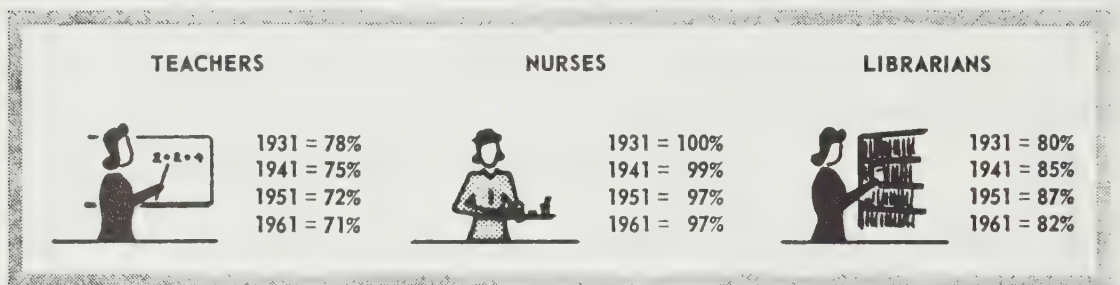
The percentage of the female labour force in personal service occupations has declined sharply since the turn of the century (see Table 12), largely as a result of the expansion of the clerical, professional, and other fields in which women are employed. The apparent downward trend in the chart showing the female share of the personal service group is shown in Table 13 to be non-existent, the proportion oscillating back and forth from decade to decade.

World War II saw the virtual disappearance of the household maid who "lives in". Low wage levels, rural poverty, and scarcity of jobs conspired, in the 1930's to, create both a supply and a demand in this occu-

Chart 12

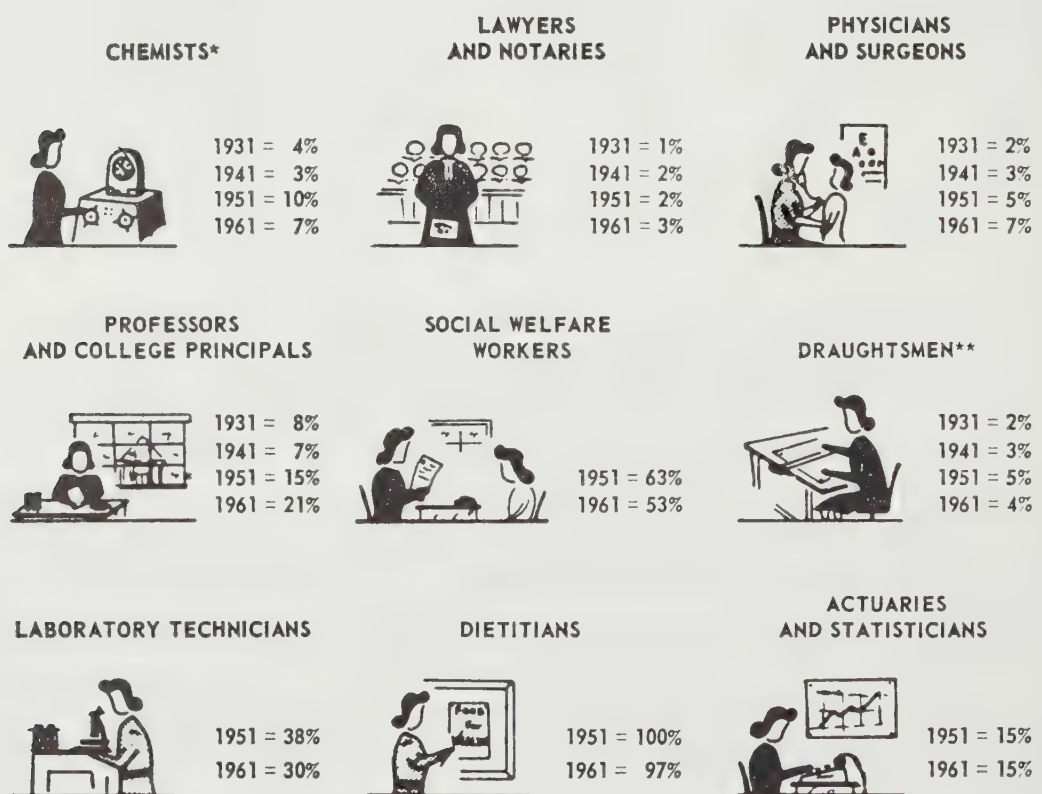
WOMEN STILL PREDOMINATE

..... IN THE PROFESSIONS THAT HAVE
BEEN TRADITIONALLY FEMININE



IN THE PAST 25 YEARS

..... INCREASING NUMBERS HAVE ESTABLISHED
THEMSELVES IN PROFESSIONS THAT USED TO BE MAINLY
MEN'S OR HAVE ENTERED ENTIRELY NEW FIELDS



*Prior to 1961 Metallurgists and a number of kinds of Technician were grouped with Chemists.

**Draughtsmen and Designers prior to 1961.

pation. During World War II the availability of other jobs for women dried up the supply of household maids. Since then, maids have been recruited from the older age groups and (although statistics on the subject are not available) it is the exception rather than the rule for them to "live in."

Personal service occupations include many jobs that are closely related to work done in the home, and these have been traditionally held by women. Most require little educational background and, with such exceptions as waitress and hairdresser for which a youthful appearance confers a competitive advantage, most are open to those older women who have a minimal vocational preparation.

Women in Professional and Technical Occupations

It is sufficient to mention teachers and nurses to have covered three quarters of all professional women. In the three traditional learned professions of divinity, law, and medicine, as well as in some of the newer but well-entrenched professions such as engineering, architecture, and accountancy, women remain very much in the minority. Nevertheless, some of the newer professions have a large component of women workers. These do not yet have large total complements of workers; however many specialties, such as social work, dietetics, and library science, may be expected to expand. Women already make up the majority of medical technicians, as well as almost 11 per cent of scientific and engineering technicians; and these two work areas may be expected to provide considerable opportunity for qualified women in years to come.

The movement of the swollen ranks of post-war babies up through the school system during the fifties created a considerable shortage both of staff and other school facilities. Between 1951 and 1961 the number of female teachers grew by 63 per cent, as compared to an 18 per cent rate of growth between 1941 and 1951. This created job opportunities for many married women who had teaching qualifications (and who previously would not have had the opportunity to teach) and also had the additional effect of pushing up pay scales for teachers. This last, in a kind of chain reaction, has had the further effect of making elementary school teaching a more attractive profession to men. The average age of women in the teaching profession is older than that of women workers in general; at the same time, fixed retirement ages tend to bar women over the age of 65 from teaching. Adult education may in future provide many part-time and evening employment opportunities for teachers.

Table 15
**Women in Professional and Technical Occupations, Showing 17 Occupations
 Each Employing over 1,000 Women in 1961, With Comparisons for 1931-1961.**

Occupation	1931		1941 ¹		1951		1961	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Teachers (including Instructors)	64,950	55.1	64,484	49.6	75,796	45.5	123,370	45.4
Nurses, graduate	20,462	17.3	26,887	20.7	34,270	20.6	59,201	21.8
Nurses-in-Training	11,436	9.7	11,822	9.1	15,581	9.3	22,667	8.3
Medical and Dental Technicians	—	—	—	—	—	—	9,075	3.3
Musicians and Music Teachers	4,641	3.9	4,033	3.1	4,598	2.7	6,799	2.5
Social Welfare Workers	792	0.7	1,253	1.0	2,525	1.5	5,765	2.1
Science and Engineering Technicians	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,930	1.4
Authors, Editors and Journalists	464	0.4	714	0.5	1,621	1.0	3,307	1.2
Librarians	806	0.7	1,331	1.0	1,787	1.1	2,805	1.0
Professors and College Principals	259	0.2	277	0.2	812	0.5	2,366	0.9
Religious Workers, n.e.s.	1,018	0.9	2,040	1.6	1,306	0.8	2,184	0.8
Physical and Occupational Therapists	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,043	0.8
Dietitians	—	—	—	—	1,100	0.7	1,849	0.7
Artists and Art Teachers	709	0.6	956	0.7	1,225	0.7	1,700	0.6
Interior Decorators and Window Dressers	169	0.1	222	0.2	724	0.4	1,606	0.6
Accountants and Auditors	571	0.5	2,992 ²	2.3	1,602	1.0	1,546	0.6
Physicians and Surgeons	203	0.2	384	0.3	660	0.4	1,452	0.5
Other	11,479	9.7	12,741	9.8	23,059	13.8	20,198	7.4
All Occupations	117,959	100.0	130,136	100.1	166,666	100.0	271,863	99.9

NOTE: Not including Yukon and Northwest Territories.

¹ Including active service.

² Shown as Clerical in 1941.

SOURCES: Census of Canada, 1931, 1941, 1951 and 1961.

The nursing profession also grew rapidly during the fifties, increasing by 64 per cent between 1951 and 1961, as compared to 30 per cent in the forties and 21 per cent in the thirties. This increase in the rate of growth of the profession may be attributed not only to the growth of the Canadian population, but also to a considerable increase in hospital facilities as well as to a variety of arrangements, both public and private, that make it financially possible for more people to have medical care.

Table 14 shows that nurses (including those in training) are a relatively young group. This may be due in part to the fairly strenuous nature of some of the work and to the requirement that hospital nurses work shifts. It may also be due in part to the fact that the profession is expanding, while the increasing number of recruits keeps the average age down.

Table 15 provides distribution of female workers through the professional and technical occupations in which women are most commonly employed. These occupations vary quite widely as to the amount and type of training they require and the working environments that go with them.

The majority of these occupations demand some post-secondary education — a minimum of two to three years in the case of teachers and nurses. Social welfare workers and librarians are, increasingly, finding it necessary to have post-graduate university training. Over 25 per cent of the women working as scientific, engineering, medical, and dental technicians are university trained, and it may be presumed that a large proportion of the remainder have had post-secondary training such as that provided by the growing number of institutes of technology.

Table 16

**Women in Science and Engineering Listed in Technical Personnel
Register, Department of Labour, Canada, 1962.**

<i>Profession</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Biological Sciences	196	17.5
Chemistry	170	5.9
Mathematics	103	11.5
Engineering	43	0.2
Agriculture	40	1.1
Physics	24	2.0
Other	163	1.7
Total	787	1.5

SOURCE: Special tabulation by Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour, Ottawa.

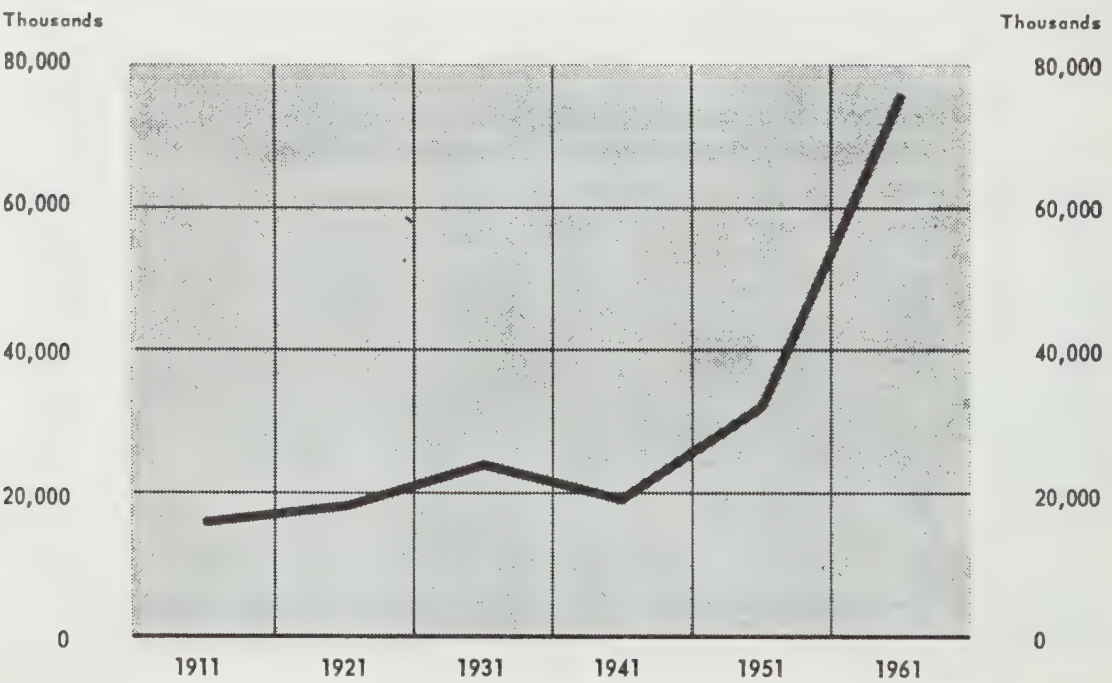
There are a number of occupations within the group of scientific and engineering technicians which are now in very short supply. This is not to say that these occupations could accommodate large numbers of new entrants; nevertheless, they represent interesting and quite remunerative work, much of which could be done by women if there were qualified female applicants available. At present, shortages are most pronounced in the electrical, mechanical, and chemical engineering technician fields. Table 16 shows the distribution of university trained women in scientific and technical fields.

Women on Farms

It was shown in Table 13 that, while in the past women were only a small component of those engaged in agricultural occupations, this proportion has gone from 1.7 per cent in 1941 to 3.9 per cent in 1951 to 11.7 per cent in 1961. In 1961 the majority of women in agricultural occupations were “farm labourers” — 66,000 out of a total of 76,000 women in agriculture — and 56,000 of the farm labourers were listed as unpaid family workers; 29.7 per cent of all farm labourers were women in 1961, and farm labourers accounted for 3.7 per cent of the female labour force.

Chart 13

RECENT CENSUSES SHOW A SHARP INCREASE IN THE
NUMBER OF WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE



This rather arresting change exemplifies a small anomaly in the accepted system of measurement of economic activities. If Mrs. Brown and Mrs. Smith were to do each other's housework and pay one another an equal sum, this unusual procedure (besides attracting taxes) would increase the labour force by two, and the gross national product by the total sum that changes hands. Unpaid work carried on in the household remains outside national accounting, with the sole exception of work performed towards the operation of a family farm or business. To determine what activities of farm wives fall under this heading calls for a more than ordinary amount of discernment on the part of census interviewers, and it is entirely possible that improved enumeration over the years may account for some part of the apparent movement of women into agricultural work.

Examination of labour force survey figures from 1950 to date suggests that the more than doubling of the female agricultural work-force between the censuses of 1951 and 1961 is largely a phenomenon of enumeration and timing. The female labour force in agriculture¹ was at high levels in 1950 and 1951, declined until 1956, and rose thereafter, regaining the levels of the early fifties. Unpaid family workers, who make up about three quarters of women in agriculture, followed the same pattern.

The likelihood is that there was under-enumeration in the 1951 census, which showed 32,169 women in agricultural occupations and 35,099 in the agricultural industry. The Labour Force Survey for the same months showed a female labour force of 99,000 in the agricultural industry.

One trend that does emerge from the statistics of the agricultural labour force is a steady downward movement in the number of male unpaid family workers. Unless mechanization is taking up the slack, this could lead in future to more wives and daughters assisting in the operation of farms.

Women as Managers

Women are faced with many disadvantages when competing for promotion to supervisory or executive positions. Here, family interests and

¹ The Agricultural Industry is referred to here rather than agricultural occupations. For women, the agricultural industry includes all agricultural occupations and some others as well. The agricultural occupations that do not fall within the agricultural industry are almost exclusively male occupations: gardeners and greens-keepers are two of the more important examples.

responsibilities, which claim the primary allegiance of the majority of women, tend to be imputed to all who are unable to disclaim them in a convincing manner. In other words, it is assumed that most women will marry and that, once married, they will bear children. This creates a risk that they will leave work and stay at home for some years. Until an employer believes the risk of these hazards is no longer great, or that a woman employee, having raised her children, is ready for a permanent career, he is unlikely to make any very large investment in her training or put her in a position in his organization where she would become relatively indispensable.

The lack of freedom to relocate tends to make it difficult for married women to establish themselves in executive positions in large corporations, since in such organizations promotion usually involves being moved through the various branch offices. This lack of geographic mobility does not bar women from higher level staff functions of the kind that are usually confined to head offices.

Table 17

**Owners and Managers: Occupational Groups with Over 1,000
Women Workers, Census 1961.**

<i>Industry or Occupation</i>	<i>Total</i>		<i>Wage Earners</i>	<i>Self- Employed</i>	<i>Unpaid Family Workers</i>
	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>			
Retail Trade	22,539	39.1	4,179	17,803	557
Personal Service	12,380	21.5	2,181	9,293	906
Postmistresses	3,153	5.5	3,153	—	—
Office Managers	2,999	5.2	2,861	76	62
Health and Welfare Services..	2,129	3.7	1,526	575	28
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	1,718	3.0	1,204	493	21
Purchasing Agents and Buyers	1,668	2.9	1,622	—	46
Public Administration	1,507	2.6	1,507	—	—
Wholesale Trade	1,209	2.1	593	572	44
Miscellaneous Services (including Religious)	1,067	1.9	853	199	15
Other Owners and Managers	7,297	12.6	—	—	—
Total	57,661	100.1	15,111	31,362	1,785

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Bulletin 3.1-14, Table 20.

However, a number of traditions regarding women as executives and supervisors tend to make entry difficult for all women save the superlatively able: that workers (even women) do not take well to supervision by a woman, that women do not have sufficient objectivity to supervise effectively, and that women present problems when group travelling must be done.

At the same time, there are a number of fields of management in which women have gained a foothold — generally in businesses, such as retail trade, advertising, and publishing, that cater partly to a female market. The count of 22,539 women in managerial jobs in retail trade (shown in Table 17) should not be taken as an indication of the number of women who are department store executives since, of the group, 81.5 per cent were self-employed (i.e., owners rather than managers) or unpaid family workers.

The census group of Owners and Managers omits a few groups of owners in which substantial numbers of women are to be found. Lodging and boarding house keepers (23,363) and barbers, hairdressers and manicurists (9,288), self-employed — a substantial proportion of these people would own their own establishments — are two of the larger omissions. The 12,380 owners and managers in the personal service industry, shown in Table 17, includes a large proportion of owners and managers of restaurants.

There is a fairly large group of female office managers — almost 20 per cent of the total in this occupation. Over 10 per cent of the purchasing agents and buyers were women, an indication of the importance of the women's market in large-scale retail trade. Women have recently started to make their mark as real estate agents, which probably accounts for a large proportion of female managers in the finance, insurance and real estate group. Finally, postmistresses outnumbered postmasters in the 1961 census.

The picture so far presented (recognizing that census figures are not altogether satisfactory for this purpose) shows some employment of women in certain special managerial capacities. It does not give any indication that women are being accepted into the managerial ranks on the same basis as men. Some of the reasons why such acceptance is currently withheld and is unlikely to become widespread in the very near future have been discussed. The most that can be said is that there are increasing numbers of places in business and government for the able woman executive, but that she suffers certain competitive disadvantages at the outset. This probably means in practice that a woman competing for an execu-

tive job that is not earmarked for a woman would have to be considerably more able than her male counterpart to be considered for it.

The Education and Training of Women

In the previous section, it was shown that clerical occupations attract a large proportion of younger women workers, while a fairly high proportion of older women work in service occupations. It was also indicated that the higher educational levels of younger women, compared to older ones, accounts for much of this pattern. Table 18 shows what happens to occupational distribution by age when the data are held constant for level of education.

The proportion of women workers in service occupations is consistently higher for those in the older age groups, but minimally so compared to the drop that occurs for young and old alike as the level of education increases. For all educational levels combined, the proportion of the female labour force under 35 in the service occupations is 20 per cent, while for those aged 35 and over it is 25 per cent. Within each of the three education groups in Table 18, the differences in the proportion of younger and older women in service occupations is much less than 5 percentage points.

A somewhat comparable pattern occurs for clerical occupations. Some secondary school education is the minimum condition of entry into most clerical occupations for both young and old. A consistently (and fairly substantially) higher proportion of young women do clerical work, and the level of schooling appears to be an important determining factor, though not as important as age. When all levels of education are combined for each of the two age groups, 34½ per cent of women workers under 35 are found to be in clerical work, as against 23½ per cent for those aged 35 and over. The differentials within each educational grouping are somewhat lower than this 11 percentage points.

Table 12 showed that only 9.9 per cent of the female labour force worked in "Manufacturing and Mechanical" occupations in 1961. Table 18 shows that older women and better educated women are not found among "Craftsmen, Production Process, and Related Workers"¹ to any extent; but that a considerable proportion, almost a third, of younger women with only elementary education work in these occupations. Typical occupations for this latter group are: operating a sewing machine in a factory, and bottling, wrapping and labelling.

¹ The 1961 Industrial Classification group that corresponds to "Manufacturing and Mechanical" in older classifications.

Table 18
Women Workers: Occupations by Age Groups and Schooling, Canada 1961.

	Elementary			Secondary 1 — 3			Secondary 4 or more					
	Under 35	%	35 plus	%	Under 35	%	35 plus	%	Under 35	%	35 plus	%
All Occupations	201,619	100.0	326,763	100.1	347,316	100.0	289,213	99.7	336,849	100.1	264,572	100.0
Managerial	2,064	1.0	15,322	4.7	3,849	1.1	17,450	6.0	3,365	1.0	15,611	5.9
Professional & Technical	3,597	1.8	6,908	2.1	18,648	5.4	21,813	7.5	125,529	37.3	95,838	36.2
Clerical	18,175	9.0	25,496	7.8	141,824	40.8	87,995	30.4	145,872	43.3	89,983	34.0
Sales	12,363	6.1	28,607	8.8	32,645	9.4	41,496	14.3	13,733	4.1	18,642	7.0
Service & Recreation	76,898	38.1	132,032	40.4	75,712	21.8	64,552	22.3	23,699	7.0	23,055	8.7
Transportation & Communication	2,262	1.1	4,101	1.3	14,309	4.1	7,921	2.7	5,960	1.8	3,415	1.3
Farmers & Farm Workers	13,286	6.6	37,435	11.5	8,244	2.4	10,550	3.6	2,590	0.8	3,763	1.4
Other Primary Industries	144	0.1	153	—	49	—	43	—	10	—	14	—
Craftsmen, Production Process, and Related Workers	62,837	31.2	62,315	19.1	37,183	10.7	27,997	9.7	6,459	1.9	8,398	3.2
Labourers n.e.s.	6,365	3.2	6,091	1.9	4,453	1.3	2,396	0.8	952	0.3	686	0.3
Not Stated	3,628	1.8	8,303	2.5	10,400	3.0	7,000	2.4	8,680	2.6	5,167	2.0

SOURCE: 1961, *Census of Canada*. Bulletin 3.1-13. Table 19.

Table 19 summarizes the material in Table 18 for all age groups. It may be seen that women with only elementary education work largely in service and manufacturing occupations; women with some secondary education work in clerical and service occupations; while women who have completed secondary education, together with those who have post-secondary or university education plus training to their credit, are divided between the clerical and professional and technical occupations.

Table 19

Women Workers: Occupations by Schooling, Canada 1961.

	<i>Elementary</i>		<i>Secondary 1-3</i>		<i>Secondary 4 or more</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>
All Occupations	528,382	100.1	636,529	99.9	601,421	100.2
Managerial	17,386	3.3	21,299	3.3	18,976	3.2
Professional & Technical..	10,505	2.0	40,461	6.4	221,367	36.8
Clerical	43,671	8.3	229,819	36.1	235,855	39.2
Sales	40,970	7.8	74,141	11.6	32,375	5.4
Service and Recreation	208,930	39.5	140,264	22.0	46,754	7.8
Transportation and Communication	6,363	1.2	22,230	3.5	9,375	1.6
Farmers & Farm Workers	50,721	9.6	18,794	3.0	6,353	1.1
Other Primary Industries..	297	—	92	—	24	—
Craftsmen etc.	125,152	23.7	65,180	10.2	14,857	2.5
Labourers n.e.s.	12,456	2.4	6,849	1.1	1,638	0.3
Not Stated	11,931	2.3	17,400	2.7	13,847	2.3

SOURCE: 1961 Census of Canada. Bulletin 3.1-13. Table 19.

It is evident that general education plays an important part in determining the occupations that women can fit into: general education is important for men also, but specific vocational preparation appears to be equally important. Professors Hall and McFarlane¹, in a study of the school population of a medium-sized Ontario community, have suggested that the high schools they studied constitute a feminine world in the vocational sense²: that the high school program provides girls with a vocational preparation for clerical occupations including stenography and also provides a basis for further training as teachers or nurses. By contrast, this high school program offered meagre vocational training facilities for boys³.

¹ *Transition from School to Work*. Oswald Hall and Bruce McFarlane. Research Program on the Training of Skilled Manpower, Report No. 10. Department of Labour 1962.

² Ibid: p. 65.

³ Ibid: p. 71

SCHOOLING HAS A CRUCIAL INFLUENCE ON THE TYPES OF WORK WOMEN DO



..... Those with only elementary schooling work largely in Service and Manufacturing occupations



..... those with one to three years of secondary schooling do Clerical work as well



..... while those with four years of secondary school or better are predominantly in Professional and Clerical occupations

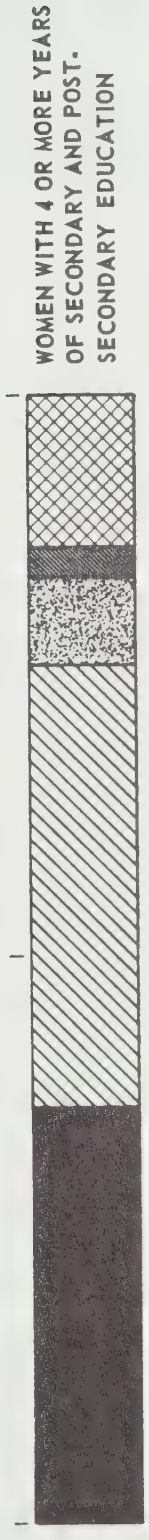


Chart 14

The 1961 Census showed that there was a higher proportion of boys than girls attending school in the 15-19 year age group. This represented a considerable change from the 1951 census when the proportions were equal, but considerably lower for both sexes. Table 20 shows that it is the situation in urban areas that brings this about; that in rural areas the proportion of girls in school is higher than that of boys in this age group.

Table 20
**Percentage of Population 15-19 Years of Age Attending School,
by Sex, Rural and Urban, Canada 1961.**

	<i>Rural</i>	<i>Urban</i>	<i>Total</i>
Males	53.2	65.9	61.2
Females	57.8	54.7	55.7

SOURCE: *Survey of Elementary and Secondary Education 1961-62*. DBS, pp 25 and 27.

These figures, together with the information in Table 18, strongly suggest that it is the availability of clerical work in urban areas that leads girls to drop out of school before completing their secondary education. The Hall-McFarlane study lends support to this hypothesis. Of their sample of students who had started Grade IX in the school system, over 80 per cent of the boys and under 65 per cent of the girls reached the age of 17 before leaving; 66 per cent of the boys and 42 per cent of the girls reached the age of 18¹. A considerable proportion of the girl “dropouts” found white collar jobs.²

It has been established in the United States that girls achieve better grades in high school on the average, than boys³, a finding that is borne out by the Hall-McFarlane study. This may be partly due to the differences in subject matter choices made by girls and boys, possibly also to a greater willingness on the part of girls to conform to the demands of the high school environment. The Hall-McFarlane study suggests a further possibility — that the facilities provided by high schools are exceedingly well adapted to the needs of those girls who make the “normal” (i.e. stereotyped) vocational choices, and are less well adapted to the needs of boys.

Hall and McFarlane noted that the early dropouts of girls from the school program did not tend to be associated with failing grades⁴, that

1 Hall and McFarlane: chart on p. 21.
2 Ibid: pp. 41-2.
3 *Womanpower*: National Manpower Council, Columbia University Press, p. 183.
4 Hall and McFarlane: p. 23.

boys tended to fail their examinations more than girls⁵, and that boys were more likely than girls to stay on at school despite a record of failures⁵. All of this suggests that an important causal dimension for the rather limited occupational distribution of women is that the high school makes the transition into clerical work and a certain limited number of professions rather easy. The expectation of fairly early marriage may also tend to limit the vocational horizons of girls.

Table 21

Women University Graduates 1962-63, by Course.

	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Agriculture	13	0.2
Architecture	3	—
Arts	3,560	51.2
Pure Science	352	5.1
Commerce	47	0.7
Dentistry	5	0.1
Education	1,379	19.8
Engineering	2	—
Fine and Applied Arts	8	0.1
Forestry	—	—
Home Economics	321	4.6
Interior Design	11	0.2
Journalism	15	0.2
Law	24	0.3
Library Science	195	2.8
Medicine	65	0.9
Music	51	0.7
Nursing	386	5.5
Occupational Therapy and Physiotherapy	173	2.5
Optometry	2	—
Pharmacy	75	1.1
Physical and Health Education	104	1.5
Social Work	167	2.4
Veterinary Sciences	2	—
Total	6,960	99.9

SOURCE: *Preliminary Statistics of Education. 1963-64*. DBS, Table 8. (Statistics for 1963-64 in this monograph are not broken down by sex).

Most of the opportunities in new and challenging fields that have been mentioned at several points in this work, will present themselves primarily to women university graduates or those who have graduated

⁵ Ibid: p. 20.

from the new institutes of technology. Yet the distribution of 1962-63 women university graduates by course (Table 21) shows that just over half have passed through the arts curriculum — which combines vocationally oriented social science programs with more humanistic fields of study. Of male graduates in the same academic year, 40 per cent were Arts students. The remainder of the women were heavily concentrated in the characteristically female professions — Education, Nursing, Home Economics, Library Service, and Occupational Therapy and Physiotherapy. Unfortunately, the tabulation does not indicate whether the 352 women who graduated in Science were in the Biological sciences, toward which women scientists traditionally have gravitated or whether there is any trend into other fields.

Apart from university and from schools of nursing and teaching, considerable opportunity exists for women to enroll in vocationally oriented post-secondary schools, especially the new institutes of technology. However, statistics show a low enrollment of girls in the technical courses offered in these schools. In 1961 there were under 500 women taking these courses out of a total enrollment of over 9,000 across Canada. Yet in many provinces the institutes of technology offer courses of considerable interest to women — ceramics and interior decorating, fashion design, dietetics, and secretarial science, to give some examples. There are also a great many women taking part-time adult education courses, but for the most part, these appear to be leisure-oriented rather than vocational courses.

Changing technology and the consequent obsolescence of skills has created a great need, in Canada today, for facilities for the retraining and upgrading of workers, both men and women. The characteristic interruption of women's occupational careers makes the need for the retraining of women particularly urgent, if they are to give their best efforts to their work. Many facilities exist now, for example, an increasing range of correspondence and adult education courses. Training at no charge to the student and with living allowance where appropriate is available to women under Program 5 (Training for the Unemployed) of the Technical and Vocational Training Agreements (between the federal government and the provinces); in the fiscal year ending in 1964 there were over 17,000 women enrolled in these courses, which normally last six months and offer a considerable range of subjects. However, most women taking Program 5 courses appear to be concentrated in the business and personal service fields.

Re-training and refresher courses for women in professional fields (especially nursing) have assumed some prominence recently. Some of the universities also, are devoting more attention to "continuing education" for women. Numbers of older women on their own initiative are returning to university and professional schools, both as undergraduate and graduate students or availing themselves of upgrading opportunities at the secondary and post-secondary levels.

In conclusion, it should be said that there are other reasons for getting an education than simply to prepare to earn a living. Women in Canada are enfranchised citizens in a democratic society, and to help keep the political system functioning satisfactorily they require the same minimal levels of education and of experience in the society at large as men. Women also require a certain amount of education to run their homes and bring up their children. This being said, the fact remains that girls and women have not been taking advantage of the facilities for technical training and education to the extent that they might. If they are to fill a continuing and useful place in the labour force they will need both to broaden their vocational horizons and strengthen their vocational competence.

Women's Earnings

The evidence that is available strongly supports the conclusion that most women who work do so mainly and almost exclusively for pecuniary reasons. It is possible to accept this evidence at face value in regard to the primacy of economic motivations, and, with some reservations, the infrequency of strong secondary motivations. It may be that married women tend to feel that in stating strong non-economic needs to work outside the home they are challenging the established order of things. On the other hand, as with men, these feelings tend to be a question of the interests people have in relation to the kind of work they do and the success they have in doing it. A woman working at a job that is poorly paid and fatiguing, and that offers little intellectual or aesthetic challenge may be expected to suffer from the same malaise as a man who finds himself in the same situation. Both have their consolations: the woman in the reflection that her main interests and duties are elsewhere, the man (who probably does not have as heavy a total workload as a woman in the same occupation) in social and recreational activities.

The wages that women are paid are clearly sufficient to attract increasing numbers into the labour force. It may be that, as is sometimes said, things go better in the family and in business organizations when women are earning less than men. Statistics indicate a distribution of incomes in Canada that guarantees that in most cases this situation will prevail. Not only are women's wages¹, on the whole, lower than those of men, but their actual earnings are also less. The reasons for this will be discussed below.

¹ *Earnings* represent gross remuneration including time, piece-work and commission earnings, regularly-paid incentive, cost-of-living and other bonuses, overtime earnings, and payments to persons absent from work. *Wage* or *salary rates* are paid to fully qualified workers for regular hours on the job.

Table 28 shows the distribution of earnings of women for the year ending at census time in 1961. One-quarter of the group earned less than \$1,000 per year, half earned less than \$2,000, while only 7 per cent earned \$4,000 or over.

Table 22

Distribution of Women Wage-Earners, by Annual Earnings, Census 1961.

<i>Earnings Group</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
-1,000	371,516	24.3
1,000-1,499	182,841	12.0
1,500-1,999	187,073	12.2
2,000-2,499	227,015	14.8
2,500-2,999	161,980	10.6
3,000-3,999	233,902	15.3
4,000-4,999	71,054	4.6
5,000-5,999	22,479	1.5
6,000 plus	17,253	1.1
Amount not reported	53,762	3.5
Total	1,528,875	99.9
Average earnings	1,995	

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Vol. 3, Part 3, Table 21.

Table 23 contains data from a sample survey taken two months earlier than the census. The distribution of women's incomes is remarkably similar to that of Table 22, this must be regarded as a coincidence, since not only is income from all sources included in Table 23, but the population living on farms is excluded.

The comparison of men's and women's incomes indicates that incomes of individual men tend to be roughly double those of women. Seasonal or broken work patterns appear not to change this ratio. Average incomes of men remain about double that of women for the various groups working less than a full year. This is shown in Table 24. A greater proportion of part-time workers (i.e., working less than 35 hours per week) among women than men tends, undoubtedly, to lower the relative incomes of working women.

Table 23

**Percentage Distribution of Persons Employed as of March-April
1962, by Annual Income and Sex.**

<i>Income Group</i> \$	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Under 500	2.6	11.1
500- 999	3.5	12.5
1,000-1,499	4.8	12.9
1,500-1,999	4.8	13.2
2,000-2,499	7.1	14.6
2,500-2,999	7.5	11.5
3,000-3,499	9.3	9.0
3,500-3,999	10.2	6.2
4,000-4,499	11.5	4.1
4,500-4,999	9.3	1.9
5,000-5,499	8.3	1.1
5,500-5,999	5.5	0.4
6,000-6,999	7.4	0.8
7,000-7,999	3.4	0.4
8,000-9,999	2.9	0.3
10,000 and over	1.9	0.1
Average income	\$4,138	\$2,118
Median income	\$4,009	\$2,010

SOURCE: *Distribution of Non-Farm Incomes in Canada by Size, 1961*, DBS, Table 21.

Table 24

**Average Annual Income of Individuals, by Sex and Number of Weeks
Employed, Year Ending March-April 1962.**

<i>Weeks Worked</i>	<i>Average Income</i>	
	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>
50-52	5,014	2,634
40-49	3,632	1,672
30-39	2,681	1,418
15-29	1,853	1,001
1-14	839	383

SOURCE: *Distribution of Non-Farm Incomes in Canada by Size, 1961*, DBS, Table 32.

In the manufacturing industry for instance the average weekly earnings of both wage-earners and salaried workers are much higher for men than for women. (Table 25.)

In the 1956 survey week more than half of the women factory workers earned less than \$40¹ but only 7 per cent of the men were in such a low income group. On the other hand 70 per cent of the men but only 10 per cent of the women were paid \$60 or more that week.

Table 25

**Average Weekly Earnings of Women and Men in Manufacturing, Canada,
Week Ending October 31, 1954-1960 and 1963.**

<i>Year</i>	<i>Wage-Earners</i>		<i>Salary Earners</i>	
	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
1954	35.90	63.98	45.00	90.99
1955	37.52	66.86	47.02	93.50
1956	39.29	70.67	49.31	99.05
1957	39.49	72.21	51.84	104.63
1958	41.90	75.03	54.07	108.34
1959	43.36	79.20	55.73	112.78
1960	43.96	80.34	57.98	116.41
1963	49.22	89.86	64.17	128.50

SOURCE: *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing*, op. cit., 1956, 1957, 1960, 1963, Tables 1, 2.

This great difference in earnings between men and women factory workers is explained to a considerable extent by the high proportion of men — nearly 60 per cent — in the heavier industries where pay is generally higher. Eighty per cent of the women were in lighter manufacturing, i.e., they were making non-durable consumer goods.

The higher wages paid in the durable goods industries affect women as well as men. Although women make up a much smaller proportion of the workers in the heavy industries than in industries producing lighter consumer goods, those women who do work in the durable goods industries tend to be paid more than other women working in factories. It seems likely that, in addition to the fact that work may be somewhat heavier in these plants, women benefit from the efforts of the predominantly male unions to raise the pay of all workers. It is also noticeable that men working in light manufacturing tend to have lower earnings than men in the heavy industries.

¹ *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing*, op. cit., 1956, Table 7. This percentage distribution has not been published in subsequent surveys.

In the case of salaried employees too, a much higher proportion of men than of women in the manufacturing industry are in the high income group. For example, in the survey week in October 1956 more than half of the salaried men but only 4 per cent of the women on salary received \$80 or more. On the other hand more than half of the women and only 8 per cent of the men got less than \$50 in the week. This is largely explained by the fact that women are concentrated in the lower paid clerical jobs. A very high percentage of the managers and professional workers in this industry are men.

That earnings of men are consistently higher than those of women is further illustrated by recent information concerning persons covered by the Unemployment Insurance Act (Table 26). Since about 90 per cent of paid workers came under the Act in 1960, these data appear to be fairly representative of the wage-earning population. They show that, although the proportion of both men and women in the lowest income groups has dropped a good deal since 1956, and for both sexes the highest income group has grown steadily, men continue to be higher paid on the whole than women. On the other hand women have an advantage over men in that they are employed to a considerably greater extent in industries that are not as sensitive as some others to economic fluctuations.

Table 26

Percentage Distribution of Persons Covered by the Unemployment Insurance Act, by Average Weekly Earnings, by Sex, 1956-1960.

<i>Average Weekly Earnings</i>	<i>1956</i>		<i>1957</i>		<i>1958</i>		<i>1960</i>	
	<i>Women</i> %	<i>Men</i> %	<i>Women</i> %	<i>Men</i> %	<i>Women</i> %	<i>Men</i> %	<i>Women</i> %	<i>Men</i> %
Less than 21 ..	12.4	4.5	11.1	2.0	10.2	2.0	9.2	1.9
21 and under 27	15.1	4.9	13.4	2.3	12.7	2.2	11.0	2.0
27 and under 33	17.5	8.1	16.3	3.7	16.0	3.6	14.5	3.3
33 and under 39	16.8	13.8	16.2	6.0	15.5	5.7	14.0	4.5
39 and under 45	13.6	18.8	13.8	8.5	13.9	7.9	12.6	5.6
45 and over	24.5	49.8	29.2	77.6	31.8	78.5	38.7	82.7
Total	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.1	100.1	99.9	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: Special tabulation by DBS, Labour Division, Unemployment Insurance Section.

The reasons why women generally earn less than men are to a considerable extent related to the role of women in society. Whereas most men spend virtually their entire adult lives working to support themselves and their families, the average woman who seeks employment does so on

an intermittent basis or in conjunction with her family and household responsibilities. The result is that not only is she less likely to work as many hours in a day, week or year as the average man, but she is not as likely either to acquire skills that are developed only by long experience. Unskilled workers of both sexes tend to be concentrated in low-paid jobs. A high proportion of women workers are engaged in unskilled or semi-skilled work — the kinds of jobs that can be left and taken up again as other responsibilities permit.

Chapter III dealt in some detail with the labour force attachment of women workers. It was noted that this is an area in which changes are going on and that many of the old stereotypes about women workers are in need of re-examination. It is clear, however, that the pattern of gainful employment is not nearly as predictable for women as it is for men, and this, of course, affects the position of women in the labour market.¹

In the first place, the attitude of women towards training for employment tends to be different from that of men. With some important exceptions, women are less likely than men to take the training necessary to fit them for highly skilled work, especially when several years of preparation are required. Decisions concerning education and training are likely to be influenced by the anticipated role of housewife and mother. (See Tables 24 and 25.)

While both men and women leave jobs for many of the same reasons, women may also withdraw from the labour market because of marriage or family responsibilities. This is not true of all women but it is the accepted pattern of a woman's life. If she wishes to remain at work outside her home, there are seldom adequate services available to enable her to do so. Therefore, when continuity of service is required, employers often prefer men; for similar reason's women's opportunities of promotion are apt to be limited.

Again, many women, especially when married, tend to choose jobs where the hours of work do not interfere too much with their household duties and where responsibilities are not too great. This is one reason why a much higher proportion of women than of men work a short week. Since duties connected with home and family generally fall most heavily on the wife, married women are likely to perform a dual role, and their absentee rates are therefore higher. Many of them work only part time or in seasonal jobs where, even if they are paid at the same rate as men, their monthly or annual earnings tend to be less.

¹ See "The Working Life of Women", *The Labour Gazette*, September 1957, p. 1060.

Then, too, married women frequently work to supplement their husbands' incomes rather than to provide an income sufficient to support a family. As a result they may be willing to accept work at comparatively low rates, thus tending to bring down the standards of remuneration for all women. The woman who re-enters employment after a long absence is handicapped also, because her work in the home will probably not have added to her training and experience for an occupation outside.

Another factor in the economic status of the married woman worker is her limited mobility. Since it is usually the husband's opportunity of employment rather than the wife's that determines the choice of a place to live, the married woman may be unable to find the type of work best suited to her abilities and training and may take a less well-paid job than she might otherwise hold. Moreover, even if she has a good position, she is unlikely to be able to accept promotion that would involve moving to another part of the country.

Finally, the number of women available in relation to job openings tends to be higher than in the case of men. There are usually many women who are prepared to enter the labour force only if jobs that will fit in with their other responsibilities, and not necessarily high paying ones, become available. This large potential supply of women workers and the relative ease with which one can be substituted for another in the many semi-skilled jobs they hold have important bearings on women's wages. An increasing demand for workers in occupations employing large numbers of women does not tend to push wages up to the same extent as in predominantly male occupations where the actual supply of workers is usually limited.

One general effect of these differences between men and women workers is that women as a whole tend to be found in lower paid jobs despite the fact that there are cases, an increasing number of them, where well trained women do hold high-paying and responsible positions.

The importance of these factors varies with changes in economic developments, in working arrangements and facilities and in education. The difference between earnings of men and women is greatest in manual work, but it is also considerable in what are commonly called the white collar occupations. There is evidence that in these kinds of employment the actual jobs done by men and by women are seldom the same.

In professional and technical work there is less difference in earnings of men and women. In many senior posts in government, business and the professions, pay is for the job regardless of sex.

In Canada, over the past 50 years, important changes have taken place in attitudes towards women's work and also in the amount of time

and effort required to perform household tasks. As women have gained political equality with men, support has grown for raising their economic status as well. The idea of equal pay for equal work appeals to the sense of justice of men as well as women. These various changes have made it easier for women to hold jobs on the same basis as men. Nevertheless, the roles of men and women in society continue to influence their relative positions in the labour market, their working life, and thus, their earnings.

More than three-quarters of all women wage-earners are either non-professional white collar workers, personal service workers or in factory jobs. Information is available to throw light on the earnings of these workers, and it will be examined.

Although professional women make up only about 15 per cent of women wage-earners, they are of special interest and importance. Myrdal and Klein have advanced the following reasons for devoting more attention to professional women than the numbers warrant:

“We have done so for a variety of reasons. One is simply that problems of choice arise only where there is at least some freedom to choose. The woman who has to go to work in order to support her family need not be troubled over much about the psychological effects her absence from home may have on her children. She knows that if she did not earn the money she needs to feed them, the children would go hungry. There is no doubt which is the lesser of the two.

“Moreover, the educated elite is more articulate and hence its problems are more widely discussed. This minority creates the patterns which are later adopted by the community as a whole. By their successes and failures the outcome of women’s emancipation will be judged, and the question of ‘how much equality’ decided.¹”

White-Collar Workers (Non-Professional)

Clerical

In 1961 more than one quarter of all working women were in clerical jobs; these women made up 61.5 per cent of all clerical workers.

Data concerning average weekly earnings of office workers in factories for certain years from 1951 to 1963 are shown in Table 27.

¹ *Women's Two Roles*, Alva Myrdal and Viola Klein, London, 1956, p. 151.

Table 27

**Average Weekly Earnings of Office Workers in Manufacturing, by Sex,
Canada, Weeks Ending October 31, 1951, 1954, 1957, 1959, 1960 and 1963.**

<i>Year</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
1951	37.77	60.68
1954	44.16	70.94
1957	50.80	81.04
1959	54.44	84.04
1960	56.59	86.41
1963	62.56	94.49

SOURCE: *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing, 1957, 1960, 1963*, DBS, Labour and Prices Division, Table F.

Of all women wage-earners in clerical jobs, about 41 per cent are stenographers and typists, 33 per cent office clerks and 19 per cent bookkeepers and cashiers; these three groups account for 93 per cent of the clerical workers. More than half of the remaining 7 per cent are office appliance operators.

Keeping in mind the rise in wages since 1961 (see Table 22), Table 28 gives some indication of the differences in levels of earnings among the three leading clerical occupations of women.

Table 28

**Women Wage-Earners in Clerical Occupations, by Earnings, Canada,
Year Ending June 1, 1961.**

<i>Earnings (\$)</i>	<i>Stenographers & Typists</i>		<i>Clerical Occupations, n.e.s.¹</i>		<i>Bookkeepers & Cashiers</i>		<i>Total Clerical</i>	
	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>
Less than 1,000....	20,871	10.0	27,237	16.7	16,441	17.4	68,496	13.7
1,000 to 1,499.....	13,044	6.3	14,495	8.9	9,135	9.6	39,224	7.8
1,500 to 1,999.....	16,878	8.1	18,421	11.3	10,606	11.2	49,429	9.9
2,000 to 2,499.....	37,452	18.0	33,033	20.3	18,528	19.6	96,199	19.2
2,500 to 2,999.....	39,084	18.8	26,305	16.1	14,741	15.5	86,756	17.3
3,000 to 3,499.....	39,544	19.0	20,839	12.8	12,348	13.0	78,807	15.8
3,500 to 3,999.....	21,937	10.6	10,590	6.5	6,550	6.9	41,768	8.3
4,000 plus	17,135	8.2	10,054	6.2	5,570	5.9	34,675	6.9
Unknown	1,761	0.8	2,008	1.2	836	0.9	4,898	1.0
Total	207,706	99.8	162,982	100.0	94,755	100.0	500,252	99.9

¹ This occupational group is composed mainly of office clerks.

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Vol. 3, Part 3, Table 21.

Of women engaged in these three kinds of work the highest paid on the whole are stenographers and typists, with office clerks earning least.

Salary rates shown below are for men and women working in these three clerical occupations in manufacturing establishments. As explained above, salary rates are not the same as earnings, but differences between the sexes and among different kinds of work show up in both types of data.

Stenographers and Typists

Nearly all stenographers and typists are women, and in 1961 one out of eight women wage-earners was either a stenographer or a typist.

Because of their added skill, stenographers generally start at higher rates than typists, and senior stenographers are usually paid at a higher rate than senior typists. Private secretaries, who have added responsibilities, are the highest paid.

Table 29
Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Stenographers and Typists in Manufacturing, Specified Canadian Cities, October 1963.

City	Average Weekly Salary Rates (\$)					
	Secretary		Stenographer		Typist	
	Senior	Junior	Senior	Junior	Senior	Junior
Atlantic Provinces						
St. John's	69.99	48.40	57.35	43.69	56.96	37.54
Halifax	67.74	53.73	57.73	46.84	51.25	44.01
Saint John	71.24	51.00	61.78	45.32	55.51	43.27
Quebec						
Montreal	85.35	73.15	70.48	60.25	62.67	52.34
Quebec City	81.67	62.83	69.26	50.85	51.74	41.48
Shawinigan Falls	91.11	70.17	69.94	58.09	61.13	50.41
Trois Rivières	74.44	64.34	53.54	43.62	56.19	46.26
Ontario						
Toronto	83.78	71.87	69.75	62.61	64.31	54.75
Hamilton	82.00	75.42	71.47	59.42	62.37	54.09
Ottawa	83.51	68.51	69.94	58.50	62.93	52.97
Windsor	91.66	83.28	78.32	58.09	74.37	59.41
London	74.49	63.27	62.55	55.48	57.35	49.39
Prairie Provinces						
Winnipeg	68.05	63.43	61.38	49.14	56.19	45.66
Edmonton	76.34	62.99	64.89	53.00	62.98	52.49
Regina	77.37	55.68	67.20	53.60	55.34	45.32
British Columbia						
Vancouver	80.93	64.85	69.05	57.94	60.60	51.86
Victoria	72.28	56.26	57.54	49.05	55.17	47.93

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Tables 90-144.

Salaries of these workers vary a good deal in different parts of the country, depending on the demand for their services and other factors. As Table 29 shows, the rates are generally highest in the industrialized central provinces and lowest in the Atlantic region.

Office Clerks

In 1961, 10 per cent of women wage-earners were office clerks and more than 50 per cent of the office clerks were women.

Although there are many exceptions, office clerks at the junior level appear to be somewhat lower paid than stenographers. Rates for senior office clerks compare favourably with those for senior stenographers, although they lag well behind rates for private secretaries.

As in the case of stenographers and typists, the highest wage rates are in the central provinces, with lower rates in the Atlantic centres. (See Table 30).

Table 30

**Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Office Clerks in Manufacturing,
Specified Canadian Cities, October 1963.**

City	Average Weekly Salary Rates (\$)		
	Senior	Intermediate	Junior
Atlantic Provinces			
St. John's	—	52.02	41.00
Halifax	62.81	50.12	42.61
Saint John	—	56.81	43.62
Quebec			
Montreal	80.94	65.46	49.31
Quebec City	62.64	60.02	38.58
Shawinigan Falls	—	63.12	—
Trois Rivières	—	—	—
Ontario			
Toronto	80.02	66.91	56.36
Hamilton	79.90	64.75	54.36
Ottawa	90.82	64.82	51.86
Windsor	88.91	79.94	69.78
London	67.73	58.41	47.95
Prairie Provinces			
Winnipeg	64.98	54.66	44.40
Edmonton	71.38	65.04	43.48
Regina	—	58.00	45.17
British Columbia			
Vancouver	81.00	65.22	52.03
Victoria	65.53	59.16	46.35

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Tables 90-144.

Bookkeepers and Cashiers

In 1961 over 5 per cent of all women workers were bookkeepers and cashiers, a census classification that includes a wide variety of individual occupations from accounting clerks and general bookkeepers to tube operators and carrier girls in the retail trade. Women constituted over 60 per cent of the entire group. Table 31 shows salary rates for two important occupations in this class.

Table 31

Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Bookkeepers and Cost Accounting Clerks in Manufacturing, Specified Canadian Cities, October 1963.

City	Average Weekly Salary Rates (\$)		
	Bookkeepers	Cost Accounting Clerks	
	Senior	Senior	Junior
Atlantic Provinces			
St. John's	—	—	—
Halifax	63.86	—	—
Saint John	66.00	—	—
Quebec			
Montreal	83.26	76.27	59.80
Quebec City	—	—	44.62
Shawinigan Falls	—	—	—
Trois Rivières	—	—	48.04
Ontario			
Toronto	80.40	74.51	61.29
Hamilton	74.37	79.74	61.30
Ottawa	81.08	77.35	55.93
Windsor	75.60	85.06	—
London	72.55	69.15	52.11
Prairie Provinces			
Winnipeg	68.01	—	—
Edmonton	70.13	—	68.14
Regina	64.70	—	—
British Columbia			
Vancouver	78.81	74.19	57.32
Victoria	73.37	—	—

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Tables 90-144.

The highest rates for senior women bookkeepers are in Montreal. Pay is relatively high throughout Ontario, but there is insufficient information to generalize about Quebec. Rates are also high in Vancouver.

Rates for women cost accounting clerks are reported in few centres outside Ontario. Perhaps it is not as common in some areas as in others for women to follow this occupation. However, of all the cities for which information is available, Windsor has the highest average rates of pay, especially for senior clerks.

Communications

Telephone Operators

Telephone operators accounted for 95 per cent of all women in Communications occupations at the time of the 1961 Census. In the year preceding the Census, as Table 32 shows, more than half of them earned less than \$2,500.

Table 32

Women Telephone Operators by Earnings, Canada, Year Ending June 1, 1961.

<i>Earnings (\$)</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Less than 1,000	5,237	15.6
1,000 to 1,499	3,392	10.1
1,500 to 1,999	4,085	12.2
2,000 to 2,499	6,541	19.5
2,500 to 2,999	5,620	16.8
3,000 to 3,499	5,081	15.2
3,500 to 3,999	1,729	5.2
4,000 plus	1,464	4.4
Unknown	318	1.0
Total	33,467	100.0

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Vol. 3, Part 3, Table 21.

As is the case for clerical workers, telephone operators are highest paid in central Canada. The average rate is lowest in St. John's, Newfoundland.

Table 33

**Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Telephone Operators in
Manufacturing, Specified Canadian Cities, October 1963.**

<i>City</i>	<i>Average Weekly Salary Rates (\$)</i>
Atlantic Provinces	
St. John's	38.83
Halifax	48.45
Saint John	48.01
Quebec	
Montreal	61.46
Quebec City	47.99
Shawinigan Falls	61.57
Trois Rivières	49.60
Ontario	
Toronto	61.56
Hamilton	59.76
Ottawa	57.78
Windsor	61.14
London	56.15
Prairie Provinces	
Winnipeg	49.54
Edmonton	54.35
Regina	—
British Columbia	
Vancouver	59.70
Victoria	58.21

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Tables 90-144.

Commercial

Sales Clerks

In 1961, about nine out of ten women in sales occupations were sales clerks; women represented more than half of all sales clerks.

Table 34

Women Sales Clerks by Earnings, Canada, Year Ending, June 1, 1961.

<i>Earnings (\$)</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Less than 1,000	45,652	37.9
1,000 to 1,499	22,412	18.6
1,500 to 1,999	22,242	18.5
2,000 to 2,499	16,977	14.1
2,500 to 2,999	6,783	5.6
3,000 to 3,499	3,149	2.6
3,500 to 3,999	1,045	0.9
4,000 plus	831	0.7
Unknown	1,451	1.2
Total	120,542	100.1

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Vol. 3, Part 3, Table 21.

Well over half of these women earned less than \$1,500 in the year preceding the Census. (See Table 34.) It should be pointed out that one in five worked less than 26 weeks in that year according to a survey of work experience for the year 1961, and in addition a considerable number worked part time the year round. Further, many women are counter clerks, and there is a high proportion of young inexperienced girls among them.

As Table 35 shows, pay is generally higher for sales clerks working on commission than for those employed on a time basis. A high proportion of the latter are counter clerks, whereas experienced sales people predominate among those selling on commission.

Table 35
Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Salespersons, Specified
Canadian Cities, October 1963.

	<i>Time Work</i>			<i>Commission</i>		
	<i>Class A¹</i>	<i>Class B¹</i>	<i>Class C¹</i>	<i>Class A¹</i>	<i>Class B¹</i>	<i>Class C¹</i>
Atlantic Provinces						
St. John's	24.70	31.13	—	—	—	—
Halifax	34.85	39.86	54.56	34.93	48.50	73.22
Saint John	29.27	36.68	31.44	—	45.42	—
Quebec						
Montreal	44.82	45.51	57.88	46.61	52.20	66.42
Quebec City	32.53	38.55	54.74	—	—	—
Shawinigan Falls	—	—	—	—	—	—
Trois Rivières	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ontario						
Toronto	44.70	45.11	68.84	—	51.45	68.10
Hamilton	44.38	45.25	67.91	—	56.68	67.01
Ottawa	37.03	39.47	64.84	45.13	47.40	—
Windsor	35.35	39.20	50.10	—	46.15	—
London	38.21	41.04	51.32	—	47.68	56.33
Prairie Provinces						
Winnipeg	44.21	55.25	—	45.39	47.85	62.07
Edmonton	49.56	46.66	57.42	—	—	—
Regina	43.20	43.98	—	—	—	—
British Columbia						
Vancouver	52.38	54.41	64.89	54.85	60.79	64.89
Victoria	47.78	50.09	75.34	—	—	—

¹ Salary rates for salespersons, both male and female, were reported according to the following definitions:

Salesperson—Class A: Requires little knowledge regarding the merchandise sold.

Salesperson—Class B: Requires enough knowledge of products to assist customers in making a selection.

Salesperson—Class C: Requires detailed knowledge of products and considerable skill in salesmanship.

For further details, please refer to information given at the end of Table 80 in *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, 1963*.

NOTE: Grocery, meat, and produce stores not included.

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Table 80.

Personal Service Workers

Personal service occupations include many jobs that are closely related to work done in the home, and these have been traditionally held by women. The 1961 Census listed about one woman worker in five under this classification, and two-thirds of those doing this work were women.

Table 36

Women Wage Earners in Leading Personal Service Occupations, by
Earnings, Canada, Year Ending June 1, 1961.

Occupation	Earnings (\$)												All Earnings Groups	
	Less than 500		500-999		1,000-1,499		1,500-1,999		2,000 plus		Unknown			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Maids & Related Service Workers, n.e.s.	35,615	31.0	33,400	29.1	22,470	19.6	11,632	10.1	8,495	7.4	3,264	2.8	114,876	100.0
Waitresses	16,806	28.3	13,030	21.9	13,902	23.4	8,474	14.3	6,396	10.8	815	1.4	59,423	100.1
Housekeepers, Matrons	921	9.3	1,181	11.9	1,507	15.2	1,692	17.0	4,444	44.8	176	1.8	9,921	100.0
Nursing Assistants & Aides	5,527	11.8	5,658	12.1	7,426	15.8	9,518	20.3	18,078	38.5	693	1.5	46,900	100.0
Laundresses & Dry Cleaners	2,896	13.5	2,674	12.5	4,972	23.2	5,187	24.2	5,447	25.4	226	1.1	21,402	99.9
Cooks	3,115	15.2	3,564	17.4	4,148	20.2	3,771	18.4	5,559	27.1	340	1.7	20,497	100.0
Janitors & Cleaners, Building	6,829	22.4	8,125	26.6	7,356	24.1	3,971	13.0	3,647	11.9	606	2.0	30,534	100.0
Barbers, Hairdressers & Manicurists	2,208	16.2	1,699	12.4	2,055	15.0	2,002	14.7	5,429	39.8	254	1.9	13,647	100.0
All Personal Service Occupations	82,985	24.8	72,189	21.5	65,160	19.5	47,116	14.1	59,150	17.7	8,351	2.5	334,951	100.1

SOURCE: 1961 Census of Canada, Vol. 3, Part 3, Table 21, Yukon and Northwest Territories not included.

The low earnings of personal service workers in 1961 (Table 36) should be read with the following qualification in mind: the personal service classification includes a large number of household workers and waitresses who receive board, and frequently room too, as part payment for their services. It will be seen that the smallest proportions earning under \$500 are in the two categories where it is unlikely that living accommodation or meals would be provided. These are also among the categories with a relatively high proportion earning upwards of \$1,500. Then there is always a large number of part-time workers among those in personal service jobs.

Hotel Workers

Rates paid to service workers employed in hotels are shown in Table 37. Unlike the census information in Table 36, rates in Table 37 include the value of meals where they are provided. Rates are generally higher in the larger hotels.

Table 37
Average Monthly Salary Rates for Women in Specified Service Occupations in Hotels, Canada, October 1963.

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Average Monthly Salary Rates (\$)</i>	
	<i>Fewer than 200 Employees</i>	<i>200 Employees or More</i>
Housekeeper	205.40	240.80
Chambermaid	158.63	190.65
Dishwasher	161.06	173.66
Elevator Operator	170.07	244.81

NOTE: Railway hotels excluded.

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Tables 84, 85.

For the smaller hotels data are broken down by regions (Table 38). As for other occupations, rates in the Atlantic provinces are well below those in other parts of Canada. Rates are highest in British Columbia.

Table 38

Average Monthly Salary Rates for Women in Specified Service Occupations in Hotels Employing Fewer than 200, Canada and Regions, October 1963.

<i>Region</i>	<i>Average Monthly Salary Rates (\$)</i>			
	<i>Housekeeper</i>	<i>Chambermaid</i>	<i>Dishwasher</i>	<i>Elevator Operator</i>
Nova Scotia	164.00	133.33	113.48	—
New Brunswick	—	111.57	—	—
Quebec	218.38	146.59	143.73	—
Ontario	199.79	157.29	154.99	170.68
Manitoba	195.89	139.65	—	—
Saskatchewan	196.15	153.95	154.30	—
Alberta	195.33	170.50	163.79	176.14
British Columbia	234.07	191.48	191.04	—

NOTE: Railway hotels excluded.

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Table 85.

Factory Workers

A considerable proportion of all women working in factories in 1961 were in some kind of work with textiles. Other leading occupational groups were Metal Products, Food and Beverages, and Leather Products. At that time, as Table 39 shows, over half of Canadian women factory workers earned under \$2,600 per year; less than 15 per cent earned \$3,500 or over.

Of the four occupational groups shown, metal workers were by far the best paid. The median income for Food and Beverages was less than \$1,500 per year, probably due in part to the fact that a certain amount of work in this industry is seasonal in character. The somewhat better showing for textile workers is due in part to inclusion of workers in textile products other than clothing who, as Table 40 shows, are better paid than the clothing workers. Rates vary, of course, in different parts of Canada. Table 40 also confirms the fact that workers in the Electrical Apparatus and Supplies industry, who make up a high proportion of women metal workers, are the highest paid.

Table 39

Women Wage-Earners in Manufacturing Occupations, by Earnings,
Canada, Year Ending, June 1, 1961.

	Food & Beverages		Metal Workers		Textiles ¹		Leather Workers		Total Craftsmen	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 1,000	6,359	39.9	2,294	12.8	17,866	20.7	1,911	19.9	41,464	21.0
1,000 to 1,499	2,165	13.6	1,595	8.9	16,234	18.8	1,884	19.7	30,721	15.6
1,500 to 1,999	2,002	12.6	2,053	11.4	19,572	22.7	2,431	25.4	36,737	18.6
2,000 to 2,499	1,994	12.5	3,180	17.7	18,587	21.5	1,995	20.8	38,912	19.7
2,500 to 2,999	1,208	7.6	2,657	14.8	8,095	9.4	805	8.4	21,810	11.0
3,000 to 3,499	1,075	6.7	3,145	17.5	3,691	4.3	341	3.5	15,063	7.6
3,500 to 3,999	704	4.4	1,692	9.4	962	1.1	99	1.0	6,749	3.4
4,000 plus	263	1.7	1,242	6.9	507	0.6	47	0.5	4,284	2.2
Unknown	154	1.0	114	0.6	743	0.9	69	0.7	1,641	0.8
All Earnings Groups ...	15,924	100.0	17,972	100.0	86,257	100.0	9,582	99.9	197,381	99.9

¹ Includes textile goods and wearing apparel.

SOURCE: 1961 *Census of Canada*, Vol. 3, Part 3, Table 21. Yukon and Northwest Territories not included.

Table 40

Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings of Women Wage-Earners in Manufacturing Industries Employing Over 70 Per Cent of Women Factory Workers, Canada, October 1963.

<i>Industry</i>	<i>Average Earnings (\$)</i>	
	<i>Weekly</i>	<i>Hourly</i>
Clothing (textile and fur)	44.41	1.16
Food and Beverages	45.23	1.20
Textile Products (except clothing)	50.74	1.24
Electrical Apparatus and Supplies	59.68	1.51
Leather Products	43.35	1.10

SOURCE: *Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing*, op. cit., October 1963, Table 1.

Textile Workers

Roughly half of all women making clothing and textiles are sewing machine operators, and their wage rates in October 1963 are shown in Table 41.

Table 41

Average Hourly Wage Rates and Straight-time Earnings of Women Sewing Machine Operators, Canada, October 1963.

<i>Industry</i>	<i>Average Wage Rate (time work)</i>	<i>Average Straight- time Earnings (piece or incentive)</i>
	\$	\$
Men's and Boys' Suits and Overcoats	1.26	1.45
Men's Fine Shirts94	1.08
Work Clothing and Sportswear91	1.15
Women's and Misses' Coats and Suits	1.43	1.89
Dresses	1.13	1.62
Hosiery and Other Knitted Goods:		
Hosiery-Circular	1.02	1.18
Underwear and Outerwear98	1.14
Foundation Garments94	1.08
Fur Goods	1.81	1.59

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Tables 26-33.

Food and Beverages

Women working in this industry are mainly in food production. Wage rates for specified occupations within the industry are shown in Table 42.

Table 42

Average Hourly Wage Rates and Straight-time Earnings of Women in Specified Occupations in Manufacture of Foods and Beverages, Canada, October 1963.

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Industry</i>	<i>Average Wage Rate (time work)</i>	<i>Average Straight- time Earnings (piece or incentive)</i>
		\$	\$
Bacon Wrapper and Packer	Slaughtering and Meat Packing	1.59	2.07
Hand Filler	Canned and Cured Fish62	1.00
General Helper	Biscuit	1.40	—
Cake Icer	Bread and Other Bakery Products..	1.16	—
Chocolate Dipper	Confectionery	1.02	—

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Tables 7, 9, 11, 12, 15.

Metal Products

The great majority of women working on metal products are employed in making electrical apparatus and supplies. Table 43 shows wage rates for assemblers in this industrial group.

Table 43

Average Hourly Wage Rates and Straight-time Earnings of Women Assemblers, Electrical Apparatus and Supplies, Canada, October 1963.

<i>Industry</i>	<i>Average Wage Rate (time work)</i>	<i>Average Straight- time Earnings (piece or incentive)</i>
	\$	\$
Radio, Television and Other Electronic Equipment		
Household Sets	1.38	1.38
Other Electronics	1.25	—
Refrigerators, Vacuum Cleaners and Miscellaneous Electrical Products	1.37	1.80

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Tables 63, 64.

Leather Products

Women in the leather products industry are mainly engaged in making boots and shoes. Table 44 shows the rates paid in selected occupations in this industry.

Table 44

Average Hourly Wage Rates and Straight-time Earnings of Women in Specified Occupations, Boot and Shoe Manufacturing, Canada, October 1963.

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Average Wage Rate (time work)</i>	<i>Average Straight- time Earnings (piece or incentive)</i>
	\$	\$
Binding Stitcher	1.05	1.31
Fancy Stitcher	1.08	1.31
Lining Maker97	1.20
Repairer	1.05	1.34
Top Stitcher	1.05	1.35
Vamper	1.07	1.33

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada*, op. cit., 1963, Table 21.

Women in Professional and Technical Occupations

In Chapter IV it was indicated that three quarters of the professional women in Canada are either teachers or nurses. The information that follows places emphasis, therefore, on these two professions, although a brief look will be taken at the salary situation in some others.

Table 45 gives a summary of the information available in the Census about the incomes of women wage-earners in six of these occupations that are of some significance for women. It will be seen that librarians (who are relatively few in number) show the highest earnings, while teachers follow closely behind. This last is a change from the situation at the time of the 1951 Census when over one third of the teachers earned less than \$1,000. The Census definition of teacher is somewhat wider than would usually be used to compile data on teachers' salaries. In addition to public school teachers, it includes, among others, teachers in business colleges, Bible schools, nursery schools, and kindergartens.

The Census definition of social welfare workers is also very broad and undoubtedly includes many women working on a part-time, quasi-voluntary basis. This probably accounts for a large proportion of the 18 per cent who earned less than \$1,000.

The proportion of the total wage-earning group earning higher salaries, say over \$5,000, gives some indication of the financial attractions of a career in a particular profession. Here, the female librarian appears to do best, followed by teachers.

Table 45
Women in Selected Occupations who were Wage Earners, by Earnings,
Canada, Year Ending June 1, 1961.

Earnings (\$)	Graduate Nurses		School Teachers		Social Welfare Workers		Librarians		Dietitians		Medical and Dental Technicians	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 1,000..	6,125	11.2	5,725	5.3	956	18.2	351	13.2	274	15.4	1,370	15.7
1,000-1,499	3,949	7.2	4,150	3.8	320	6.1	146	5.5	127	7.1	807	9.2
1,500-1,999	3,443	6.3	11,240	10.4	255	4.8	99	3.7	147	8.3	903	10.3
2,000-2,499	5,498	10.0	11,626	10.7	404	7.7	191	7.2	212	11.9	1,307	14.9
2,500-2,999	5,620	10.3	10,415	9.6	325	6.2	209	7.9	122	6.9	1,078	12.3
3,000-3,999	21,370	39.0	28,199	26.0	1,177	22.4	508	19.1	286	16.1	2,473	28.3
4,000-4,999	6,667	12.2	17,653	16.3	977	18.6	436	16.4	327	18.4	586	6.7
5,000-5,999	958	1.7	9,291	8.6	491	9.3	361	13.6	169	9.5	90	1.0
6,000 and Over..	298	0.5	8,801	8.1	274	5.2	314	11.8	97	5.4	41	0.5
Earnings not Reported	832	1.5	1,306	1.2	83	1.6	38	1.4	19	1.1	94	1.1
Total	54,760	—	108,406	—	5,262	—	2,653	—	1,780	—	8,749	—
Average Earnings	\$2,752	—	\$3,400	—	\$3,021	—	\$3,518	—	\$2,999	—	\$2,355	—

SOURCE: 1961 Census of Canada, Volume 3, Part 3, Table 21.

One factor that tends to depress the apparent earnings of nurses in relation to the other groups is that some receive room and board in addition to cash income. It is also an occupation in which a large number, particularly those who are married, are part-time workers.

Teachers

By far the most important profession for women, numerically (see Table 15) is the teaching profession. More than 70 per cent of all teachers are women.

When teachers are grouped according to whether they teach in primary or secondary schools, the type of community they work in, their level of training, and their length of experience, sex differences in salary tend to vanish. Accordingly, in the tables that follow — 46 and 47 — no sex breakdown is given. These tables reveal the effects of the variables mentioned on the average salaries of teachers.

A distribution of the salaries of women teachers has already been provided in Table 45. In general women earn less than men as teachers, but this is related to the fact that a larger proportion of men teach in secondary schools, in urban areas, and have higher certificates. Apart from qualifications, men probably have more opportunities than women to become principals or assistant principals because of the force of tradition.

Comparing Tables 46 and 47 reveals that secondary teachers are higher paid than primary teachers by about \$1,000 for beginners and by about \$2,000 for more experienced teachers. Secondary teachers are normally required to have a university degree, and the differential is not so pronounced below certificate level 4. Secondary school teachers with long experience, little training, and high salaries would presumably be in administrative positions.

Urban schools pay more than rural schools. The differential appears to be in the \$300-500 range, with less of a differential for secondary than for primary schools.

The certificate level (number of years of study beyond the junior matriculation level) is of the utmost importance as a determiner of salaries. Teachers frequently take advantage of the long summer holiday to take courses and thus improve their certificate levels. Married women teachers living in communities that do not have universities would not have much opportunity to improve their credentials in this manner. At the middle levels of experience (4-15 years) there is a \$2,000 salary differential between certificate level 1 and certificate levels 4-6.

Years of teaching experience are reflected in salaries, but especially where higher certificates have been earned. This is more the case in urban than in rural schools.

Table 46
Average Annual Salaries³ of Elementary Teachers,⁴ by Type of Community,
by Years of Experience, Canada,¹ 1963-1964.
(Dollars)

Type of Community	Experience					
	Less than 1 Year	1-3 Years	4-9 Years	10-15 Years	16-25 Years	26 or more Years
<i>Certificate Levels 4-6²</i>						
Urban	4,428	4,807	5,672	6,777	6,885	6,874
Rural	4,350	4,733	5,526	*	*	*
<i>Certificate Levels 2 and 3²</i>						
Urban	3,300	3,723	4,613	5,342	5,531	5,782
Rural	3,141	3,460	4,060	4,505	4,538	4,516
<i>Certificate Level 1²</i>						
Urban	2,809	2,971	3,528	4,011	4,085	4,183
Rural	2,678	2,761	3,180	3,457	3,364	3,433
<i>Certificate Levels -1 and 0²</i>						
Urban	2,400	2,459	3,007	2,847	2,856	*
Rural	1,776	1,805	2,231	2,173	2,193	*
<i>All Levels (0-6 and special)²</i>						
All Elementary Teachers	3,088	3,520	4,282	4,833	4,996	5,408

* Less than 101 teachers in the group.

¹ Does not include Quebec.

² The classification using "levels" attempts to equate the various certificates of the nine provinces on the basis of the minimum number of years of academic and professional training required for the certificates related to the base of junior matriculation level.

*Years of Required Training
Beyond Junior Matriculation Level*

Level	
6.....	6
5.....	5
4.....	4
3.....	3
2.....	2
1.....	1
-1.....	
0.....	

} Of which at least one year
is professional training

} Commonly junior matriculation plus less than one year
(usually 6 weeks, but sometimes 12, 18 or 24 weeks) of
professional training.

} Not less than Grade 10 and no professional training.

³ Salary averages, although being fair representative figures, are in no way an indication of the great disparity existing in salaries of different provinces.

⁴ "It was found that there were no substantial differences between the remuneration of men and women, so that a sex breakdown is not shown."

SOURCE: *Salaries and Qualifications of Teachers in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1963-1964*, DBS, Tables 18-23.

Table 47

**Average Annual Salaries³ of Secondary Teachers,¹ by Type of Community,
by Years of Experience, Canada,¹ 1963-1964.**

(Dollars)

Type of Community	Experience					
	Less than 1 Year	1-3 Years	4-9 Years	10-15 Years	16-25 Years	26 or more Years
<i>Certificate Levels 4-6²</i>						
Urban	5,000	5,666	6,984	8,167	8,738	9,083
Rural	4,632	5,301	6,565	7,380	7,756	7,666
<i>Certificate Levels 2 and 3²</i>						
Urban	4,747	4,868	5,776	6,398	6,662	7,093
Rural	3,637	3,906	4,706	5,119	5,316	5,532
<i>Certificate Level 1²</i>						
Urban	*	*	*	*	*	*
Rural	*	*	*	*	*	*
<i>Certificate Levels -1 and 0²</i>						
Urban	5,131	5,319	6,065	6,983	*	*
Rural	4,625	4,544	*	*	*	*
<i>All Levels (0-6 and special)²</i>						
All Secondary Teachers	4,884	5,316	6,500	7,492	7,980	8,530

* Less than 101 teachers in the group.

¹ Does not include Quebec.

² Cf. Note 2 in Table 46.

³ Cf. Note 3 in Table 46.

⁴ Cf. Note 4 in Table 46.

SOURCE: *Salaries and Qualifications of Teachers in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1963-1964*, DBS, Tables 18-23.

Nurses

At the time of the 1961 Census roughly 20 per cent of all professional women in Canada were graduate nurses. The Census also classes nurses-in-training as professional women, and if they are added to the graduates, nurses make up 30 per cent of the women in professions. Except for teachers, this is by far the largest group.

Taxation statistics show a considerable improvement in the incomes of nurses since the last edition of this book (which presented data for 1956). Unlike the Census, which covers the whole population, taxation statistics are based on a sample of income tax returns.

Table 48 shows that 80 per cent of the nurses who paid income tax in 1956 had incomes under \$3,000. The proportion taxed on incomes of \$4,000 or over was about 4 per cent. The concentration in the lower income groups is to be expected since the classification by occupation is based mainly on the taxpayer's method of earning income, that is, only nurses engaged in private practice are listed in their professional capacity. This would mean that those who are generally higher paid would be included with "employees".

Table 48
Nurses Subject to Income Tax, by Income Class, Canada 1961.

<i>Income Class (\$)</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Under 2,000	1,200	38.5
2,000 to 2,999	1,320	42.3
3,000 to 3,999	480	15.4
4,000 to 4,999	80	2.6
5,000 to 5,999	21	0.7
20,000 to 24,999	21	0.7
All Income Classes	3,122	100.2

SOURCE: *Taxation Statistics*, 1961, Department of National Revenue, Taxation Division, Table 10, p. 84.

Turning back to Table 45, we find that the incomes of graduate nurses shown in the Census are considerably higher than those shown in the taxation statistics, with over 50 per cent indicating incomes in excess of \$3,000 per annum. This includes all graduate nurses, whatever the nature of their employment.

In October, 1962, the Department of Labour conducted a survey of Monthly Salary Rates in Hospitals across Canada, including rates for staff nurses and nursing auxiliaries. The survey appears to have covered roughly half the graduate nurses in the country.

The survey shows average salaries across Canada of \$312 per month for female staff nurses; \$216 per month for female certified nursing auxiliaries; and \$178 per month for female uncertified nursing auxiliaries. The average salary of male orderlies (who were much less numerous than nurses, and presumably in short supply) was \$249 per month.

Average salaries of nurses did not tend to vary much with size or type of hospital for Canada as a whole. In fact, with the exception of Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, there is astonishingly little variation in the average salaries paid to staff nurses and certified auxiliaries across the country (see Table 49).

Table 49
Average Monthly Salaries of Female Staff Nurses and Certified
Nursing Auxiliaries, by Locality, October 1962.

<i>Location</i>	<i>Average Monthly Salary (\$)</i>	
	<i>Staff Nurse</i>	<i>Nursing Auxiliary — Certified</i>
Canada	312	216
Newfoundland	244	146
Prince Edward Island	242	155
Nova Scotia	277	190
Halifax	288	204
New Brunswick	288	190
Saint John	296	197
Quebec	310	216
Montreal	312	217
Quebec	305	208
Ontario	317	223
Toronto	323	239
London	326	230
Ottawa	319	235
Hamilton	314	229
Manitoba	307	227
Winnipeg	308	226
Saskatchewan	314	214
Saskatoon	312	221
Alberta	311	213
Edmonton	303	213
Calgary	312	216
British Columbia	333	228
Vancouver	329	231
Victoria	336	223

SOURCE: *Monthly Salary Rates in Hospitals*, October 1962, Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour, Canada.

This similarity in wage rates may be attributed to shortages of nurses in many areas, to the mobility of a substantial proportion of the nursing profession, as well as to the considerable influence of the registered nurses' associations in each of the ten provinces.

VI

Legislation Affecting Women Workers

*L*egislation dealing with various aspects of employment has an important bearing on the conditions under which women work in Canada. Under the British North America Act, the authority to legislate on labour matters, in so far as the majority of workers are concerned, is in the hands of the provincial legislatures. Federal laws apply to working conditions only in certain "works, undertakings and businesses" whose activities are for the most part inter-provincial or nation-wide in scope. In this category it is only in inter-provincial transportation; radio, telephone and telegraph operations; and banking, that substantial numbers of women are employed.

The department of labour in each province administers and enforces the labour laws enacted by its Legislature, as does the federal department for those enacted by Parliament. In order to ensure compliance with the minimum standards established by law, each labour department maintains inspection services. Some inspectors are engaged in examining payroll records to see that laws having to do with such matters as wages, hours of work and vacations, are being observed. Others who have special technical qualifications check on the enforcement of laws for the protection of workers whose employment exposes them to special hazards. Still others, such as elevator inspectors and boiler inspectors, are concerned with the safety of the general public as well as of workers.

Departments of labour are also the agencies to which employers and workers may turn for information or advice regarding day-to-day problems arising from the administration of labour laws. For the most part, legislation enacted for the protection of workers applies to both men and women. There are some laws, however, that are designed to safeguard the health and welfare of women in relation to the functions of maternity and motherhood; others, such as equal pay laws have come into existence to ensure women equal treatment with men as members of the labour force.

Of basic importance are industrial relations laws which protect the right of the worker to belong to a union and ensure bargaining rights for workers. These laws require an employer to recognize and negotiate with a certified union representing a majority of his employees. Such laws exist in the federal jurisdiction and in each of the provinces. Therefore, rates of wages, hours and some other conditions of work for women are determined by collective bargaining and set out in collective agreements that have the protection of the law. Many women, however, are unorganized, and for them the legislative enactment of labour standards is especially relevant and important.

The other main fields of labour legislation are industrial safety, health and welfare, including compensation for employment injury; wages, hours of work, fair employment practices; apprenticeship and training and such other aspects of working conditions as rest periods and vacation with pay. There is a trend towards the gathering together of the labour laws within a jurisdiction in the form of a labour code or “omnibus-type” Act. Such consolidations of standards exist in

- *The Alberta Labour Act* 1947 in which standards are grouped under six relevant subjects: Hours of work; minimum wages; labour welfare, including annual vacations with pay and maternity leave; industrial standards; labour relations; and equal pay for equal work.
- The Manitoba *Employment Standards Act*, 1957, which consolidates legislation governing minimum wages; hours and conditions of work, including notice of termination of employment, weekly day of rest; and safety of employees.
- New Brunswick *Minimum Employment Standards Act*, 1964, which includes provision for limitations on the age and types of employment of young people, hours of work, rest periods, maternity leave, weekly rest and the payment of (back) wages or salary on termination of employment.
- Quebec *Labour Code*, 1964, which consolidates and replaces seven previously existing Acts dealing with labour relations.
- *The Canada Labour (Standards) Code*, 1965, which brings together standards applicable within the federal jurisdiction relating to hours of work, minimum wages, annual vacations and general or statutory holidays.

Labour legislation usually sets minimum standards. Personnel policies and collective agreements between employers and trade unions often establish more favourable standards. To employ a person under conditions less favourable than the standards established by law is considered to be

contrary to the interest of society as a whole. Neither a private agreement nor a collective agreement may validly contain such conditions.

Industrial Safety, Health and Welfare

Laws to protect the safety, health and welfare of men and women in their working environment were the earliest type of labour legislation. In its present form, this kind of legislation sets out the general stipulation that an employer must keep the work place in such a way that it will not be injurious to the health, safety and comfort of employees.

“Every employer shall keep his industrial establishment so that the safety of persons is not likely to be endangered”, reads the Ontario *Industrial Safety Act*.

The Manitoba *Employment Standards Act* puts it thus:

“No person shall keep a factory so that the safety of any person employed therein is likely to be endangered, or so that the health of any person employed therein is likely to be substantially or permanently injured.”

Quebec Industrial and Commercial Establishments Act requires that the industrial and commercial establishments that come under the Act “be built in such manner as to secure the safety of all employed in them . . .”.

Such laws, which exist in all provinces, may also include provisions regarding ventilation, light, heating, overcrowding and toilet and wash-room facilities. In places where there is dangerous machinery the law may require that safety guards be installed on dangerous machinery. If a dust-producing process is carried on, the installation of a mechanical ventilation system may be obligatory.

For various other hazards a large body of safety rules have become legal minimum standards. Factors affecting the safety and welfare of employees that may be subject to regulation include fire protection, atmospheric hazards, medical examinations for employees, facilities for medical treatment in case of accident or sickness and the supervision of the general health of employees during working hours. Occasionally there are provisions that apply to women in particular; a fairly common one is that women working in factories must wear a suitable head-covering to prevent their hair being caught in moving machinery. The making of regulations “respecting the employment of pregnant females in any factory or shop” is authorized by the Ontario *Industrial Safety Act*. Some provisions that formerly applied only to women are now more often applied to workers of both sexes, for example, a prohibition against cleaning machinery while any part of it is in motion.

Hazardous Occupations

A number of provisions exclude women from hazardous operations or types of work. In all provinces women are prohibited from working underground in mines. In the Province of Quebec, they are prohibited from working on a number of processes including abattoir operations and those in which poisonous fumes are produced or dangerous explosives handled.

Regulations under the British Columbia *Factories Act* prohibit women from lifting more than 35 pounds in the course of their regular work and from doing any type of overhead lifting or stacking.

In Manitoba, it is forbidden for women to carry burdens of more than 25 pounds for distances exceeding 10 feet or to lift articles of such weight that an excessive strain may be imposed on them.

Under the Ontario *Industrial Safety Act* the regulation relating to weight-lifting applies to any employee, man, or woman: "No employer shall require a person to lift, carry or move anything so heavy or in such manner as to be likely to endanger his safety or the safety of any other person in an industrial establishment." Moreover, the term "industrial establishment" has wide connotation, including factory, shop, office or office building; "shop" includes restaurant, bowling alley, poolroom or billiard parlour.

The Federal government has made regulations under the *Atomic Energy Control Act* forbidding the employment, within its jurisdiction, of any person under 18 years or who is pregnant or whose health is such as to make employment as an atomic energy worker undesirable. Saskatchewan has a *Radiological Health Act* with similar provisions. Other provinces have laws authorizing regulations to be made for the control of radiation hazards, but as yet none have been issued.

Welfare Facilities

Several provinces have ruled that seats must be provided for workers in various types of employment. For the most part this requirement relates specifically to women, but in some instances it applies also to men.

In Alberta, on written direction from an inspector, an employer may be required to provide "a sufficient and suitable chair or seat for the use of every woman employed".

British Columbia regulations regarding female factory employees state that, if the inspector so directs in writing, seats with back rests shall be provided by the employer.

The Newfoundland *Hours of Work Act* requires that "where female assistants are employed in the serving of customers, the occupier of the

shop shall provide seats behind the counter or in such other position as may be readily convenient for use by the assistants and the seats shall be in proportion of not less than one seat in each room to every three female assistants employed in the room, and no occupier or manager of a shop shall take any means to hinder or restrict the reasonable use of the seats by the female assistants”.

Under the Ontario *Industrial Safety Act* regulations requiring the provision of seats by employers apply, irrespective of sex, to employees who in the course of their work have “reasonable opportunities for sitting in safety or without detriment to the work” and also to those whose work “or a substantial portion thereof” can be effectively performed while sitting.

Similarly Quebec regulations respecting Industrial and Commercial Establishments require that employees of both sexes whose occupations permit of their sitting down shall be provided with chairs furnished with a suitable back.

Rest rooms also are required by law in some provinces. In Manitoba and Ontario, where 10 or more women are employed in an establishment, the employer is required to provide a rest room equipped with couches and chairs, and, if 35 or more women are at work, a welfare supervisor must be employed. *The Alberta Labour Act* provides that, after being directed in writing by an inspector, an employer must at his own expense provide a suitable room or place in the factory or shop for dining and eating. The provision of a suitable rest room for persons employed in the factory may be similarly required.

The New Brunswick *Industrial Safety Act* authorizes regulations requiring that washroom facilities, lunch rooms and rest rooms and also seats be provided for employees. Presumably these regulations when established would apply to both men and women.

In Nova Scotia, if an inspector so directs in writing, the employer shall not allow any woman, youth or young girl to take meals in any room in which a manufacturing process is being conducted. After being directed by the inspector in writing to do so, the employer shall, at his own expense, provide a suitable room apart from the working area for dining and resting, and maintain it in a clean and sanitary condition.

Workmen's Compensation

In each province there is a *Workmen's Compensation Act* that is applicable to most industries and occupations and provides for the payment of compensation to an employee or his or her dependents in the

case of accident or industrial disease arising out of and in the course of employment. Federal employees are covered by a federal Act, but their claims are processed through provincial channels, and the provinces are reimbursed by the federal government for monies paid to its employees.

The employee who is entitled to compensation is paid from a provincial Accident Fund built up by annual assessments levied on employers covered by the Act. This compensation takes the place of any right an employee might otherwise have to sue the employer in court because of injuries sustained.

Compensation for a woman, as for a man, is based on the extent of disability and the amount of earnings. There is a ceiling, which varies among the provinces from \$4,000 to \$6,000 on the amount of annual earnings that may be taken into account. Compensation for disability is limited to a specified percentage of earnings — currently 75 per cent in all provinces. In fatal cases, dependents are awarded fixed monthly sums.

Homework

Homework, though not widespread in Canada, engages women chiefly in relation to the clothing industry.

Three provinces — British Columbia, Manitoba and Ontario — have laws governing homework, which is defined in the Ontario *Industrial Safety Act* “as the doing of any work in the manufacture, preparation, improvement, repair, alteration, assembly or completion of any article or thing, or any part thereof by a person for wages in premises occupied primarily as a living accommodation”.

In Ontario any employer of homeworkers must obtain a permit from the Chief Inspector, who may issue a permit on such terms and conditions as he considers advisable and is authorized to revoke or suspend a permit. The employer must keep a register of homework employees, the hours they have worked and the wages paid to them. The inspector may inspect this register and also any article delivered to or received from a homeworker. Further the inspector has the same powers with respect to homework premises as a medical officer of health under the Public Health Act.

The British Columbia *Factories Act* and the Manitoba *Employment Standards Act* contain similar provisions. The latter requires also that an employer register with the Minister in writing, notice of his intention to engage homeworkers, and the Minister may impose further conditions and limitations upon the employment of homeworkers, if he deems it necessary to ensure conformity with the intents and purposes of the Act with regard to remuneration.

Maternity Leave

Three provinces — Alberta, British Columbia and New Brunswick — have laws of general application governing maternity leave for women workers. In addition, *The Industrial Safety Act* of Ontario authorizes the making of regulations “respecting the employment of pregnant females in any factory or shop”; no regulations have been made to date under this authority.

The *Alberta Labour Act* authorizes the Board of Industrial Relations to make regulations prohibiting the employment of a pregnant woman on day shifts six weeks before and two months after delivery and on night shifts throughout pregnancy and for two months after delivery. This provision is inoperative, however, since no regulations have been issued.

In British Columbia, the *Maternity Protection Act* of 1921, prohibits the employment of a woman for six weeks following childbirth. It also provides that a woman has the right to leave her work if she produces a medical certificate stating that her confinement will probably take place within six weeks. If the mother is nursing her child, she must be allowed half an hour twice a day during working hours for this purpose. No regulations have been issued under this Act.

The *Minimum Employment Standards Act* of New Brunswick requires an employer to permit a woman who is pregnant to be absent from her work for a period up to six weeks before childbirth, on production of a medical certificate showing that delivery will probably take place within that time. It also prohibits the employment of a woman during a period of six weeks, or a longer period on production of a medical certificate, following her time of delivery. A further protection is that an employee on maternity leave may not be dismissed until she has been absent for a maximum period of 16 weeks.

Civil servants in the federal government are entitled to maternity leave under the *Civil Service Act* and regulations to the extent of two months before and up to six months following the termination of pregnancy, without pay. Similarly statutory maternity leave is granted by several provinces to civil servants in their employ. In Prince Edward Island, sick leave with pay may be granted up to 28 working days. In Saskatchewan, maternity leave may be granted under a provision for leave without pay for valid reasons that apply to any civil servant of the province; the period of leave must be in excess of three weeks but not exceed one year and is granted on condition that satisfactory arrangements can be made for the performance of work during the employee's absence. In Nova Scotia, there is provision for special leave without pay of not more than 90 days, pro-

vided the employee has been employed for not less than two years. In Manitoba, if a civil servant leaves because of pregnancy and is re-employed within six months of the time she left, she is entitled to retain any sick leave, vacation leave and seniority which she accumulated prior to her leaving; she may also be eligible to re-enter the Superannuation Fund if her re-employment within six months is approved by her attending physician. Regulations under the *Public Service Act* of Ontario authorize leave for a period from one to six months upon certificate of the Civil Service Commission which may be applied once for childbirth; if a woman is absent a second or more times for reason of childbirth, upon application made within two years of ceasing to be employed, she may be re-appointed to her former position or to another position for which she is qualified, upon its next becoming vacant. In the event of such re-appointment the employee's service before and after the period of absence is regarded as continuous for all purposes but the absence itself is not computed in determining length of service.

Wages, Hours and Other Working Conditions

Minimum Wages

For a large proportion of employees in Canada, minimum wage rates are set by law. All provinces have legislation which authorizes a minimum wage board or other labour board to set or recommend minimum rates of wages. The rates are imposed by minimum wage orders. These orders apply to most industrial and service workers but not to agricultural workers or domestic servants. Part-time workers, among whom inevitably there are many women, are not covered in New Brunswick.

For the most part, minimum wage orders apply to workers of both sexes and set the same rate for women as for men. This is already the case in Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Quebec and Saskatchewan. Currently, in Ontario there are differences between men's and women's rates as well as regional differentials, but these are to obtain for a limited transitional period and will have been removed by the end of 1965, when a minimum rate of \$1 an hour will be in force for workers of both sexes in all parts of the province.

Until recently the Nova Scotia Minimum Wage Board has had authority to set rates for women only, but a new *Minimum Wage Act* passed in 1964 that covers all employees in the province except farm workers and domestic servants enables the Board to set minimum rates for both men and women.

In Prince Edward Island, an order is in effect covering male workers in most occupations but to date no corresponding order has been made for women, and the only two classes of women workers for which minimum rates have been set are restaurant and laundry workers. In Newfoundland, as in Prince Edward Island, rates are lower for women than for men.

In addition to the general minimum rate which applies to most industries and workers in a province, there may be special minimum rates that apply to a particular industry, occupation or class of workers, in some cases taking into account a special skill.

Minimum rates are set by the week in some provinces, and by the hour in others. In Alberta and Saskatchewan, both of which have a weekly minimum, special rates are set for part-time workers. In all but two provinces — Newfoundland and Saskatchewan — the orders provide that inexperienced workers may be employed during a learning period at a rate below the regular minimum. These rates may be applicable generally or to a particular industry, and in some provinces an employer must obtain a permit from the administrative board before employing a worker at the learner's rate. The learning period may vary in length from one to six months.

Most general orders contain a "daily guarantee" or "call in time" provision, requiring an employee who is called to work to be paid for a certain number of hours, even if he is not put to work or if he works for a shorter period. This two-three-four-hour minimum period, as the case may be, must be paid for at least at the minimum rate, except in British Columbia, where payment is required at the employee's regular rate of pay.

There are also provisions in the orders of most provinces, particularly in those applying to hotels and catering, relating to permitted charges or deductions for board and lodging and for the provision of uniforms, where required by the employer.

Tipping is dealt with specifically in the New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario and Quebec legislation, making it clear that gratuities are not to be counted as part of wages. The Quebec order for hotels and restaurants states that tips are the exclusive property of the employee and that the employer is not allowed to retain them or to consider them as part of the wages paid, even with the employee's consent. While there is no reference to tipping in the legislation of the other provinces, all boards take the position that gratuities are not to be regarded as wages.

In some provinces employers are required to furnish a pay statement to each employee on each regular pay-day.

Minimum wage orders are reviewed fairly frequently. Information about the current rates can be obtained from the department of labour in each province or from the Legislation Branch of the Department of Labour of Canada.

Minimum wage boards usually are composed of members who represent the interests of employers and employees, and in some cases the general public, with an impartial chairman, frequently an officer of the appropriate department of labour. In British Columbia, at least one member of the board must be a woman, and in Nova Scotia and Saskatchewan, there must be two women on the board. The Alberta board also includes a woman, although not so required by statute.

The new federal labour code sets a minimum wage rate of \$1.25 an hour for employment in connection with federal works, undertakings and businesses throughout Canada. This rate applies to workers of both sexes over the age of 17. Regulations are to be made specifying the occupations in which young workers under 17 may be employed, and fixing an appropriate minimum wage rate and other conditions of employment for these workers.

Equal Pay For Equal Work

Laws that prohibit discrimination in rates of pay to women workers hold particular interest for women. Such laws have been enacted by the legislatures of eight provinces — Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Prince Edward Island and Saskatchewan —and, for the industries under federal jurisdiction, by Parliament. Under these laws a woman employee who considers that her rate of pay is not equal to that paid to a male fellow employee doing the same kind of work may make a complaint to the Department of Labour which administers the Act. There is provision for investigation of the complaint and for redress if it is well-founded.

Hours of Work

The first limitations on hours of work in Canada restricted the hours women and young persons were permitted to work in factories. The purpose of these laws was to curb long hours that were detrimental to the health and welfare of the worker. The factory legislation of Quebec and of Saskatchewan still contains some provisions of this type that limit the hours of women workers. In New Brunswick, the *Minimum Employment*

Standards Act, which is applicable to any place of employment other than a private home or a farm, regulates the working hours of women and boys under 18, prohibiting longer hours than nine in a day or 48 in a week, except with the permission of the Minister of Labour.

Most recent legislation on hours of work, however, applies to men as well as to women and sets a limit closer to the prevailing practice. Five provinces — Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, Ontario and Saskatchewan — have hours of work laws of general application setting a maximum of eight hours a day and 44 or 48 hours a week. In Manitoba, the standard work week is 44 hours for women and 48 hours for men.

In all provinces except Ontario, women must be paid at an increased rate for work done beyond specified daily or weekly hours, and except in Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, this requirement applies to men also. In the four western provinces (with certain exceptions in Manitoba), the required overtime rate is one and one-half times the employee's regular rate of pay. Elsewhere (except in Ontario) the overtime rate is one and one-half times the minimum rate fixed by minimum wage orders. Ontario has no legal provision for overtime rates.

Under the federal labour code, working hours are normally not to exceed eight in a day and 40 in a week, but overtime of an additional eight hours in a week is permitted so long as one and one-half times the regular rate is paid. Work in excess of 48 hours in a week is to be allowed only in exceptional circumstances.

Night Work

In three provinces — Ontario, Quebec and Saskatchewan — provisions prohibiting night work for women and young persons under 18 are in force. In Ontario, those who are employed in a factory, shop, restaurant, bowling alley, poolroom or billiard parlour may not work between midnight and six o'clock in the morning without the permission of the Minister of Labour. A permit is not required, however, for an evening shift from half-past-six to midnight. In Quebec, the prohibition applies to employment in industrial establishments and covers the hours between eleven at night and seven in the morning, unless longer hours are permitted by the inspector because of some emergency. Such a permit is issued for a period of not more than six weeks. Saskatchewan forbids the employment of women and boys under 18 in factories after half-past-six unless a special permit is obtained. When longer hours are permitted because of an emergency or accident, they may not work later than ten o'clock or earlier than seven in the morning.

In Alberta, Manitoba, Ontario and Saskatchewan, legislative or administrative authorities have provided that, if work is performed by women during the night, the employer must provide free transportation for the worker to her place of residence. In Saskatchewan, the provisions cover work in hotels, restaurants, educational institutions, hospitals and nursing homes. The Alberta and Manitoba provisions apply to almost any employment in which women are engaged and cover the hours between midnight and six o'clock in the morning. In Ontario proprietors of restaurants who have written permission to employ women during the night must provide such transportation.

Rest Periods

Rest periods are another associated matter on which there are legislative requirements. Most provinces require a weekly rest of 24 consecutive hours, and the new federal labour code requires working hours to be so arranged that each employee has at least one full day of rest in the week — Sunday, whenever practicable. In British Columbia, the requirement for a substantial number of workers is a weekly rest of 32 consecutive hours.

In Manitoba, it is required that women employees be allowed 10 minutes rest during a work period lasting three hours or more.

Nova Scotia, Quebec and Saskatchewan set a minimum lunch period for women employed in factories. In British Columbia at least half an hour of free time must be allowed them after five consecutive hours of work, and a similar requirement in Ontario applies to workers of both sexes in "industrial undertakings", which include most types of employment.

In Saskatchewan, if women work in factories on into the evening, they must be given time off for a meal; in Quebec, a similar regulation applies to both men and women workers. In Manitoba and Ontario, no worker can be allowed to work longer than five hours without a meal period. New Brunswick defines the maximum length of time that may be worked without a meal period as six hours, except in the case of a shift worker employed on a shift of eight hours or less. In Nova Scotia there is no mandatory period after which a meal break must be allowed.

Vacations with Pay

Eight provinces — Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Quebec and Saskatchewan — have established minimum standards for annual vacations with pay. In New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario and Quebec the required length of such paid vacation is one week; in the other four provinces it is two weeks,

except that in Saskatchewan, after five years service, an employee is entitled to a vacation of three weeks with pay.

Farm workers are excluded in all provinces and domestic workers in all but Manitoba and Saskatchewan. Certain other exceptions exist in some provinces.

Legislation applicable to industries under federal jurisdiction — the Canada Labour (Standards) Code — requires employers to grant their employees an annual paid vacation of two weeks after a year of employment.

For the period of annual vacation workers are entitled either to their regular pay, as in Alberta and Manitoba, or to a percentage of their annual earnings (two per cent for a one-week vacation and four per cent for a vacation of two weeks). Several provinces spell out what is meant by a year's service, i.e., 225 working days in the year.

Within certain limits laid down in the law, the employer may decide the time when his employee may take his annual vacation. In some provinces and in federal industries, a vacation must be given within 10 months after the employee becomes entitled to it. The employee must be notified in advance of the date of his annual vacation and must be given his vacation pay at least one day before the vacation begins. In some jurisdictions, if a public holiday occurs during an employee's vacation, the vacation must be extended by one day in lieu of the holiday.

Under the federal law and under the laws of all provinces but Manitoba, if employment is terminated during a working year, a worker is entitled to vacation pay for the period he has been employed, subject, however, in some instances to the requirement of a minimum period of service.

Public Holidays

For many workers in Canada, particularly workers governed by a collective agreement, paid public holidays are customary, but only the Legislatures of Manitoba and Saskatchewan and the Parliament of Canada have enacted legislation of general application placing specific obligations on employers with regard to pay for public holidays. A third province, Alberta, by an amendment to the *Alberta Labour Act* in 1964, gave the Board of Industrial Relations authority to lay down requirements with regard to pay for employees who do not work on public holidays and for those who do work on such days. Orders have not yet been issued under this authority.

In Saskatchewan, employees are entitled to eight holidays and must be paid at regular rates for these days. The holidays are: New Year's Day, Good Friday, Victoria Day, Dominion Day, Labour Day, Thanksgiving Day, Remembrance Day and Christmas Day. An employee who is required to work on one of the listed holidays, is entitled to his regular pay for the day and, in addition, must be paid at one and one-half times the regular rate for the time worked on the holiday. Workers in hotels, restaurants, hospitals, nursing homes and educational institutions are subject to somewhat different conditions from other workers. For work on a holiday, they must be given their regular pay for the day and, in addition, either pay at their regular rate for the time worked on the holiday or time off equivalent to the number of hours worked on the holiday within a period of four weeks. Another day may be substituted for any of the eight holidays named in the Act by agreement between employer and trade union or with the permission of the Minister of Labour. When Christmas or New Year's Day falls on a Sunday, the holiday pay requirements apply to Monday. They apply also when the Monday following Remembrance Day is declared a holiday.

In Manitoba, the law is silent with regard to holidays on which employees do not work but, if required to work on seven "general holidays", workers are entitled to pay at one and one-half times their regular rate. As in Saskatchewan, special provision is made for certain work places which need to be open. Workers in hotels, restaurants, hospitals, gasoline service stations, places of amusement, in a continuously operating plant or in a seasonal industry who are required to work on a holiday must be given time off with pay within 30 days. Domestic servants may be granted two half-days off in lieu of a holiday. November 11 is set apart as Remembrance Day in Manitoba and, except in certain essential services, work is prohibited except under permit from the Minister of Labour.

The federal labour code provides for eight general holidays with pay. Workers must receive their regular pay for these days. If a general holiday falls on a day on which an employee does not work, he must be granted another day in lieu of the holiday. Many of the employees to whom the federal code applies are employed in continuous operations such as railways or airlines and normally have to work on some of the general holidays. In this situation an employee may be granted an alternative day off with pay, which may either be a day added to his annual vacation or a day granted at another time convenient to him and his employer. In other than continuous operations where an establishment would normally be closed, an employee, if required to work on a holiday, must be paid at

one and one-half times his regular rate for the time worked, in addition to his regular pay for the day. He is not entitled to pay for a general holiday that occurs in his first 30 days of employment with an employer. As in Saskatchewan, another holiday may be substituted for any of the specified days.

There are also provisions regarding public holidays in the decrees under the Quebec Collective Agreement Act, and in industrial standards schedules in some of the other provinces. These usually apply only to certain trades and areas.

In provinces where there is no law regarding public holidays the number of holidays which must be observed and paid for may be determined by collective agreement. Otherwise the matter is one of personnel policy of the individual employer.

Termination of Employment

Four provinces — Manitoba, Nova Scotia, Quebec and Saskatchewan — have legislation requiring an employer or employee to give notice of termination of employment. In all cases the legislation applies equally to manual and non-manual workers.

In Manitoba, under the *Employment Standards Act* an employer or employee in any industry except farming must give notice of termination of employment. Except in the case of a person paid less frequently than once a month, the period of notice must be at least as long as the period for which one regular instalment of wages is paid. Persons paid less frequently than once a month must be given reasonable notice. The Act sets out conditions for establishing a shorter period of notice. Also, if a worker or employer claims that employment has been terminated without proper notice, there is provision for making a written complaint to the Minister of Labour, and a procedure for dealing with such complaints is written into the Act.

In both Nova Scotia and Saskatchewan an employer is required to give one week's written notice of termination of employment or lay-off, if the employee concerned has been in his service for three months or more. The term "lay-off" is defined as "temporary dispensation with the services of an employee for a period of more than six consecutive days." The Nova Scotia legislation places the obligation to give notice on both the employer and employee; in Saskatchewan, however, it rests only upon the employer.

In Quebec, Section 1668 of the Civil Code provides that a domestic servant, journeyman or labourer employed by the week, month or year,

who intends to leave his or her employment must give a week's notice if hired by the week, two weeks if by the month and a month's notice if by the year. The employer must give similar notice where an employee's services are no longer required. A worker may be discharged, however, if paid the full amount of wages to which he or she would have been entitled had notice been given.

Fair Employment Practices

Laws to prohibit discrimination in employment have been enacted by Parliament and by the legislatures of seven provinces: British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Quebec and Saskatchewan; there is also a Fair Practices Ordinance in the Yukon Territory. Race, colour, religion and national origin are prohibited bases of selection for employment in all of the Acts. The Quebec law alone includes also sex and social origin, while a recent amendment to the British Columbia law prohibits discrimination against older workers, i.e. persons over 45 and under 65 years of age.

It is required by law, also, that in the National Employment Service there be no discrimination on grounds of racial origin, colour, religious belief or political affiliation in referring workers to jobs. Similarly, a clause must be inserted in all Federal Government construction and supply contracts requiring the contractor to refrain from discriminatory employment practices based on race, national origin, colour or religion.

The principle underlying this legislation is that selection for employment should be based on an individual's fitness for the job, and advancement, on performance in the job. Such legislation is one of the means by which public policy is shown to be against the social evil of discrimination.

Statutory School-leaving Age and Minimum Age for Employment

All provinces have statutory provisions covering the minimum age for leaving school; it is 15 years in Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, Newfoundland and Quebec and 16 years in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia; Ontario, Prince Edward Island and Saskatchewan; in Manitoba the age will be raised to 16 years in 1965. Exemptions are permitted in case of illness, distance from school or lack of accommodation and, except in British Columbia, for home duties and for employment. The laws place restrictions on the employment of children of school age during school hours.

Also, in all provinces, there is legislation regulating the minimum age for employment. This minimum varies from 14 years to 18 years; it differs from one province to another and with the type of occupation. For example, under *The Industrial Safety Act in Ontario*, the minimum age for employment in factories is 15 years. The employment of 14-year-olds is permitted, however, in shops, offices, restaurants and bowling alleys so long as a child has an employment certificate and the employment is not likely to endanger his or her safety.

Apprenticeship

Every province has a system of apprenticeship under which an individual may obtain training in certain designated trades. The terms of apprenticeship, including the trades that are apprenticeable, vary from province to province. Germane to the system in all cases, however, is a combination of on-the-job training with classroom instruction over a specified period of time. Although there are no legal barriers that exclude them, very few girls and women participate in this type of training except in the field of hairdressing, which in several provinces is an apprenticeable trade.

Other Laws of Special Interest to Women Workers

Income Tax

Certain provisions of the *Income Tax Act* have special relevance to married women who are working:

A married woman may earn up to \$250 a year without affecting the exemption to which a husband is entitled for his wife. If, while married, she earns more than \$250 but less than \$1,250, the husband's exemption of \$1,000 for his wife is reduced by the amount of her earnings less the basic amount of \$250. Once the wife earns more than \$1,250, the husband gets no exemption for his wife. Where the wife is the main support of the household, the same situation applies in reverse.

In so far as the wife herself is concerned, she is entitled to the basic exemption of \$1,000. If she earns more than \$1,000 per year, she is taxed on the same basis as a single person.

Alimony is considered as part of a woman's income even if the alimony is for the support of children only. If alimony covers children, the woman then claims the children as dependents when calculating her income tax.

If a wife is employed by her husband, he may not claim her salary as a business expense, and she pays no tax on her salary.

Children may be claimed as dependents when they are under 21 years, although the amount claimed depends on whether or not they are eligible for Family Allowances; over 21 years but dependent because of a physical or mental infirmity; or in full-time attendance at a school or university. No child may be claimed as a dependent who has an income of over \$550 per year. Either parent may claim children as dependents.

A woman who is single, separated, divorced or widowed is entitled to a larger amount for the first dependent child and to the usual amounts for the others. If she supports the child or children in a dwelling where she employs a full-time servant, she is entitled to claim a further amount.

Deductions for the support or partial support of other dependent relatives are set out in the tax guide issued each year with income tax forms.

Unemployment Insurance

The *Unemployment Insurance Act* establishes a national system of insurance against unemployment. Under this system benefit is available to large numbers of men and women workers in the event of involuntary unemployment. The Act has wide coverage, but there are a few industries and occupations outside its scope. Not yet included are domestic service in private homes, school teaching, and private duty nursing. Employment in charitable institutions and in hospitals not operated for gain may be covered at the request of the employing institution with the concurrence of the Unemployment Insurance Commission. Employees paid on an hourly, daily or piece-rate basis in the employments covered are insured regardless of the amount of their annual earnings; other employees are excluded if their earnings exceed \$5,560 a year.

The insurance plan is financed by contributions from the employee, the employer and the Federal Government. The employer is required to deduct from the weekly earnings of the employee an amount ranging from ten cents to 94 cents depending on the amount of earnings. The employer pays this into the unemployment insurance fund along with his own contribution of equal amount. The Government makes a contribution equal to one-fifth of the combined contributions of the employer and employee, and pays the costs of administration.

If a woman is capable of and available for work and unable to obtain suitable employment, she may draw benefits provided that she has made the required number of contributions. She must be genuinely available for work and prepared to accept immediately suitable employment, otherwise she is not entitled to benefit. There are also other grounds on which a

worker may be disqualified. An employee who is discharged by reason of misconduct or who leaves the employment voluntarily without just cause may be disqualified for a period not exceeding six weeks. Until 1953 a person who became ill while drawing benefits, and who was therefore not capable of employment, was disqualified, but a 1953 amendment to the Act provides that in these circumstances benefit payments are continued.

The amount of benefits is related to average contributions, and is greater for a person with one or more dependents than for a person having no dependents. The lowest rate for a person without a dependent is \$6 a week and the highest \$27; for a person with a dependent the lowest rate is \$8 and the highest \$36.

The Act is administered by the Unemployment Insurance Commission, which has local offices in all cities and in many towns across Canada.

VII

International Labour Affairs and Women Workers

In today's world, no country is an island unto itself. Canadians, like the people of all other nations, are affected by economic and social conditions elsewhere in the world. Among its manifold concerns, therefore, the Government of Canada maintains a continuing relationship with international developments in the field of labour including manpower resources, factors in employment demand, industrial relations and all other aspects of the operation of the labour market. All of these subjects have important implications for the utilization of woman power in modern industrialized society. In addition, there may be particular questions relating to women's employment in which exchange of experience and the setting of standards at the international level may be a valuable guide in national policy making. Women workers, therefore, as an integral part of the labour force, have a very real stake in international labour affairs.

Canada's participation in international labour affairs is made possible through her membership in various inter-governmental bodies: the United Nations — the Economic and Social Council and its commissions and particularly one of the Specialized Agencies, the International Labour Organization (ILO) — and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). The International Labour Affairs Branch of the Department of Labour coordinates research and communication in Canada in relation to the latter two organizations, and the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labour is frequently called on by the Department of External Affairs to supply information relating to the work of the Commission on the Status of Women.

United Nations Commission on the Status of Women

For three years, from 1958 to 1960, Canada served as a member of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, one of the

functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council, which gathers information from Member States of the United Nations and appropriate international non-governmental organizations in consultative status with the Council, prepares studies and makes recommendations on all aspects of women's status in political, economic, social and educational fields.

Irrespective of direct membership in the Commission, Canada participates in such studies by providing relevant information regarding conditions in this country. Then when the Commission's recommendations have been reviewed by the Economic and Social Council and come before the Economic and Social Committee (Committee 3) of the United Nations Assembly, the Canadian Member of the Committee has opportunity to comment and vote on behalf of Canada for their acceptance or rejection. A period of direct membership in the Commission, however, made it possible for Canada's voice to be heard at the formative stage of consideration on questions of particular concern to women.

International Labour Organization

From the inception of the International Labour Organization (ILO), Canada has been one of its constituent members and, as one of the leading industrial nations of the world, has one of the permanent Government seats on the Governing Body of the Organization. The ILO, which was established in 1919 under provisions relating to labour contained in the Treaty of Versailles, after the Second World War became one of the Specialized Agencies of the United Nations. It differs from the other Specialized Agencies in that it is tripartite in structure. Voting rights in the Annual Conference, the legislative body of the Organization, are vested in two representatives of the Government of each Member State, one from its Employers and one from its Workers. Constituted on the same principle, the Governing Body includes government members, employer members and worker members in a ratio of 2:1:1. At present, in addition to the Government Member from Canada, Canadian workers have a representative on the Governing Body and Canadian employers a substitute representative.

Responsible for the continuing work of the Organization is the Office in Geneva, with a large and highly specialized secretariat which is supplemented by branches in a number of countries throughout the world, including Canada. The Office carries on research and investigation relating

to labour market and working conditions in all parts of the world and is responsible for the informational activities of the Organization. Its reports provide the basis for discussion in the Conference and in seminars, special committee meetings, consultations and conferences held from time to time, both at headquarters and in various geographical regions. Members of the secretariat participate also in technical assistance projects in developing areas of the world. These may be carried out by the ILO itself or also, in many instances, in cooperation with other specialized agencies of the United Nations, for example the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) or the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

The International Labour Conference, which meets annually in the European headquarters of the United Nations in Geneva, takes decisions regarding the standards that are to be incorporated in international instruments. These take the form of Conventions which, when ratified by governments, have the force of international treaties and Recommendations, which set social objectives for governments to work towards.

In its early years, the ILO devoted attention mainly to the formulation of international labour standards and the promotion of legislation to protect the interests of workers. The first Conference held in 1919, adopted two Conventions that related exclusively to women workers; *The Child-birth Convention*, which set out standards for maternity protection, and *Night Work (Women)*, which placed restrictions on the employment of women at night. The years following saw the adoption of further measures for the protection of women workers. For example, *The Convention on Underground Work (Women)*, 1935, forbade their employment underground in mines and in occupations involving risks, such as industrial poisoning.

With the political and economic changes of two decades, however, there came about, especially in the late 1930's, a concern not only to protect the health of women workers but to safeguard their right to work and guarantee them freedom from discrimination in wages and salaries. The Constitution adopted in 1919 had underlined "the special and urgent importance of the principle that men and women should receive equal remuneration for work of equal value". The Conference of 1937 stressed that women, as well as men, should be guaranteed freedom of association, and in 1939 the Organization defined its policy regarding the position of women workers in relation to all workers: "The Conference recognizes the great importance of laws for the protection of women, prohibiting night

work and employment in dangerous and unhealthy trades, but emphasizes that it is urgently necessary for the health of all workers to be protected by legislation”.

The second phase of the history of the ILO following the Second World War, has seen continuance of this emphasis on the promotion of greater equality of opportunity and treatment for women at work or seeking work and away from the protection of women as a separate category of workers. The problems of women have been considered within the framework of the policies and programs covering all workers, and the Conventions and the Recommendations adopted by sessions of the Conferences have been of as much concern to women workers as to men workers. Special programs or activities for women have been directed to their health and well-being in relation to maternity and to their family and motherhood functions or to the elimination of discrimination against them in occupations and employment.

Since the War, too, the ILO has called several meetings of experts on women's work and has set up a panel of consultants on problems of women workers, which met in Geneva in 1959. In 1962, membership in this panel was extended, and Canada, in addition to two other Member States not originally consulted, was invited to name a representative. At the 1959 meeting of the Panel, three main areas of policy were stressed: the crucial importance of adequate occupational preparation for girls and women; the promotion and expansion of opportunity and equality of treatment for women workers, and the employment of women with family responsibilities.

In connection with the first of these, the ILO's main concern is to foster, in co-operation with UNESCO, the practical measures needed to make equality of opportunity for girls and women a reality in the fields of education and training. The Vocational Training Recommendation, 1962, which codified and brought up-to-date ILO Standards in this field, states: “Training should be free from any form of discrimination on the basis of colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin. . . .”.

A definitive achievement in the promotion and extension of opportunity and equality of treatment for women workers had occurred when the 1951 Conference adopted the Convention on Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value. This document, among the best known of ILO instruments, has stimulated and assisted national effort to establish the rate for the job according to the require-

ments of the work to be done, irrespective of the sex of the worker. Another instrument in this area of policy is the 1958 Convention on Discrimination in Employment and Occupation. This Convention, based on the principle of non-discrimination on grounds, amongst others, of sex, states that special measures of protection or assistance provided for through other ILO instruments shall not be regarded as discriminatory.

At the 48th Session of the International Labour Conference in 1964, for the first time in the history of the ILO, an item directed to the broad question of women's place in the labour force was included in the agenda. A comprehensive report, "Women Workers in a Changing World", which documented the situation throughout the world in both industrialized and developing countries, had been prepared by the Office. The report also reviewed measures already taken by the ILO in behalf of women workers and set forth proposed conclusions as the basis of a Recommendation on the Employment of Women with Family Responsibilities. Final action on this Recommendation, which sets forth policies and services that would enable women with family responsibilities who need or choose to work outside their homes to do so without being subject to discrimination, is anticipated at the 49th Session of the Conference in June 1965.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) began its official existence on 30th September 1961, replacing the Organization for European Economic Co-operation, which had been established originally to administer co-operative efforts towards European recovery following the economic disruption of the Second World War, including Marshall Plan Aid. Eighteen countries of Western Europe, together with Canada, Japan and the United States, comprise the membership of OECD. In addition, two countries, Finland and Yugoslavia, have special status in the Organization, co-operating in aspects of the program in which they have particular concern.

The aims of OECD stated in articles of the Convention under which it was established are

"To promote policies designed:

- (a) to achieve the highest sustainable economic growth and employment and a rising standard of living in Member countries, while maintaining financial stability, and thus to contribute to the development of the world economy;

- (b) to contribute to sound economic expansion in Member as well as non-member countries in the process of economic development;
- (c) to contribute to the expansion of world trade on a multilateral, non-discriminatory basis in accordance with international obligations.”

Member countries, both individually and jointly, have agreed further, among other things, to promote the efficient use of their economic resources and “in the scientific and technological field, promote the development of their resources, encourage research and promote vocational training.”

The supreme body of OECD is the Council, which is composed of representatives of Member countries and from which all general or administrative decisions are taken. The Council meets from time to time at Ministerial level and regularly at Permanent Representative or Official level. Questions to be submitted to the Council, whether relating to the general policy of the Organization or to the progress of its work, are first examined by the Executive Committee. The Secretariat, headed by the Secretary-General and working at the Headquarters in Paris, exercises all functions necessary for the efficient administration of the Organization assigned to it under the Convention or entrusted to it by the Council and the Executive Committee.

OECD serves mainly as a medium for exchange of information and for research rather than for the adoption of formal agreements. The substantive work of the Organization is carried out by more than 20 committees, each studying questions in its field of competence as instructed by the Council or the Executive Committee. A committee may develop questionnaires to obtain information from Member States and organize working parties or “confrontations” on subjects of particular concern.

Of direct relevance to the field of labour matters is the work of the Manpower and Social Affairs Committee, in which representatives of the Department of Labour of Canada actively participate. This Committee’s program of work for 1965 includes items dealing with vocational training, in particular, adult training and the relation between basic education and preparation for work; adjustment programs for special groups such as older workers, including training, placement techniques and counselling; geographic mobility; job creation; changes in employment structure; manpower policies for industrial relations; living standards and labour management considerations.

Already in 1961, while the Organization for European Economic co-operation was still in existence, its Manpower Committee carried out

a useful and comprehensive study of the employment of women workers, which dealt with such important questions as the changes in women's employment over a period of time; the employment of married women, part-time employment of women and problems and prospects of women workers. A current survey of the service sector of the economy in Member countries also has particular relevance to women workers, since so many women are employed in service industries and occupations. As in the case of the ILO, however, all aspects of the work of OECD have important implications for women in the labour force.

FOR FURTHER READING¹

Caplow, Theodore. *The Sociology of Work*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 1954.

Describes the occupational system with reference to a number of factors, including vocational choice (Chapter 9) and the occupations of women (Chapter 10). Basic text on the sociology of work.

Elkin, Frederick. *The Family in Canada*. Ottawa: Canadian Conference on the Family. April 1964. (Price \$2.00).

Account of present knowledge and gaps in knowledge about Canadian families.

International Labour Conference. Forty-eighth session. Report VI (1). *Women Workers in a Changing World*. Geneva: International Labour Office. 1963. (Price \$1.50).

A study on an international scale of present day economic activities of women, their occupational preparation and conditions of work. Reviews ILO standards relating to women's employment, adding proposals for a further ILO instrument on women workers with family responsibilities. Includes analysis of administrative arrangements within national governments to handle women's questions.

International Social Science Journal. Vol. XIV, No. 1, 1962. Part One. Images of Women in society. UNESCO. (Price \$2.00 at Canadian Government Printing Bureau).

A sociological study of the outlook of women and attitudes towards them in countries of contrasting cultures and at various stages of industrial development.

Jephcott, Pearl and others. *Married Women Working*. London: Allen & Unwin Ltd. 1962.

Two studies by the London School of Economics and Political Science, one of a well known firm of biscuit makers that relies chiefly on married women workers, the other an inquiry carried out in the surrounding industrial borough. An objective examination of the social results of married women going to work including adjustments made by the firm to the home situation of such women and the effect on the woman herself and her family.

Myrdal, Alva and Viola Klein. *Women's Two Roles*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd. 1956.

Implications of twentieth century changes in social position of women. Factors that impede the employment of married women are analyzed and suggestions made by which the present uneasy stage of transition may be resolved to enable women to take their full part in the life of both family and community.

National Manpower Council. *Womanpower*. New York: Columbia University Press. 1957.

A statement by the Council with chapters by the Council staff. Includes discussion of the influence of traditional attitudes on distinctions between "men's" and "women's" jobs, on the acceptance of women as supervisors and their opportunities to become executives.

Nye, F. Ivan and Lois W. Hoffman. *The Employed Mother in America*. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co. 1963.

Considers the reasons why married women work, the effects of the mother's working on the children and on the husband-wife relationship, and the adjustment of the mother to her two roles as a worker and a homemaker.

¹ Requests for these publications should be made through libraries or bookshops unless otherwise stated. They are not available through the Women's Bureau.

Canadian Government Material

Department of Labour, Economics and Research Branch, Ottawa:

Automation and the Changing Meaning of Work. John C. McDonald. 1963.

Indicates the need for different value concepts and for individual opportunity for self-development and enrichment. The challenge of automation is a challenge for education.

Looking Ahead to the World of Work. Canadian Occupations series. 1964. (25 cents).²

Introduces the broad vista of occupations that lie ahead for young people. Prepared for upper elementary and junior high school students.

Other Canadian Occupations booklets are based on one occupation or occupational group covering nature of the work, preparation and training, entry, working conditions, and employment outlook. (List available on request from the Occupational Analysis Section, Economics and Research Branch, Department of Labour, Ottawa).

Transition from School to Work. Oswald Hall and Bruce McFarlane. Research Program on the Training of Skilled Manpower, Report No. 10. December 1962. Catalogue No. L2-23/10. (35 cents).²

How a group of young people 21 years of age, in a typical Ontario community fared after leaving school. Research project designed to explore relationships between formal education and occupational experience.

Department of Labour, Legislation Branch. Ottawa: —

Provincial Labour Standards. December 1963. Catalogue No. L2-7/1963. (35 cents).²

Annual publication. Sets out the standards in effect in the provinces of Canada with respect to child labour, holidays, hours of work, minimum wages, equal pay for equal work, workmen's compensation, fair employment practices, and weekly rest-day. Standards set by labour Ordinances of the Yukon and North-west Territories are included.

Department of Labour, Women's Bureau, Ottawa: —

Equal Pay for Equal Work. 1959. Catalogue No. L38-859. (25 cents).²

Information on "equal pay" laws enacted by the federal and eight provincial governments. Some historical background and the means of enforcement of the laws.

Fields of Work for Women: Physical Sciences, Earth Sciences, Mathematics. 1964.

Focusses attention on the dynamic fields of the physical sciences, the earth sciences and mathematics, underlining the possibilities without ignoring the difficulties. The achievements of a few women pioneers in science in Canada make us realize that to exclude gifted women with scientific interests from so exciting and creative fields of endeavour is to bring grave loss, not only to them but to the nation, and even the world.

Implications of the Traditional Divisions between Men's Work and Women's Work in our Society. Report of a Round-Table Conference. 1964. (Available on request from the Women's Bureau).

Paper titled "Economic Causes and Consequences of the Traditional Division of Labour Between Men and Women" by W. R. Dymond; and one on "Gender and the Division of Labour" by Oswald Hall. Includes notes from the discussion on: employment and unemployment; occupational roles of men and women; education and training and vocational counselling; and themes, theme-makers and change.

Job Training for the mature woman entering or re-entering the labour force. 1964. (Available on request from the Women's Bureau).

Various categories of jobs mature women could fill. Information on qualifications required and on available training.

Married Women Working for Pay in Eight Canadian Cities. 1958. Catalogue No. L38-258. (25 cents).²

Survey report indicating occupations of married working women, their stability in the work force, their reasons for working, home arrangements and their husbands' earnings.

A Niche of Usefulness. 1960. Catalogue No. L38-1561. (25 cents).²

How handicapped women may learn to help themselves and prepare for useful work with the aid of vocational rehabilitation services in Canada.

Occupational Histories of Married Women Working for Pay in Eight Canadian Cities. 1960. Catalogue No. L38-1060. (25 cents).²

Occupational histories of the same women whose contemporary situation was analyzed and reported upon in *Married Women Working for Pay in Eight Canadian Cities*.

Vocational and Technical Training for Girls in Canada — high school, post high school and trade school levels. 1963. Catalogue No. L38-1663. (75 cents).²

A presentation of some of the wide choices open to girls at high, post high and trade school levels. New courses geared to the changing needs of the economy are constantly being introduced but too often a girl's choice is restricted because of not knowing what training opportunities are within her reach.

Collective Action by Nurses to Improve their Salaries and Working Conditions. Reprint from Labour Gazette, May 1964. Catalogue No. L38-2064. (15 cents).²

The Women's Bureau also produces occasional mimeographed bulletins on subjects of current interest in relation to women's employment, training and education. They may be obtained free of charge from the Women's Bureau. Recent titles have been:

Day Care Services for Children of Working Mothers. 1964.

Legal Restrictions on Night Work of Women. 1963.

Maternity Leave. 1963.

Opportunities for Continuing Education — "A Second Chance for Women". 1963.

Opportunities for Women in the Biological Sciences. 1963.

The Personnel Supervisor of a Large Insurance Company Speaks to Girls. 1964.

Socio-Medical Problems of Working Women. (Reprint from Labour Gazette) March 1964.

The Dominion Bureau of Statistics at Ottawa, the central statistical agency for Canada, compiles, analyses and publishes statistical information relative to the commercial, agricultural, industrial, financial, social and general condition of the Canadian people. Following are some of its publications:

Full-time Enrolment in Vocational Courses under the Federal-Provincial Agreements. April 1, 1963 to March 31, 1964. November 1964.²

Enrolments by course or field of specialization with classifications by province and by Program of the Federal-Provincial Agreements. Some 90 occupational categories ranging from accounting to woodworking are listed.

Survey of Adult Education, 1961-62. October 1964. Catalogue No. 81-207. (75 cents).²

Statistical report of survey results on courses and related activities conducted by universities and colleges, federal and provincial government agencies, public libraries, business colleges and trade schools, in 1961-62 and some teacher-training institutions in the summer of 1961.

Survey of Higher Education. 1962-63. Part 1 — Fall Enrolment in Universities and Colleges. Catalogue No. 81-204. (75 cents).²

Full-time, part-time, and correspondence course enrolment by faculty, institution, provinces, and sex.

Unemployment in Canada. 1962. Catalogue No. 71-503. (75 cents).²

Main facts about unemployment for the period 1952-62. Statistics on age, sex, marital status, geographic location, family responsibilities and if other members of their families were working.

² Available by mail from the Canadian Government Printing Bureau with remittance payable to the Receiver General of Canada, or from Queen's Printer bookshops located in Montreal, Ottawa and Toronto.
